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# *The* NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Human Relationships at the International Level  
Education and the Basic Human Issue

Community School Builds Human Relations

Higher Education and National Security

Liberal Arts College in a National Emergency

Impact of Military Service on Educational  
Planning

Improving High School-College Relationships

High School-College Curriculum Articulation in  
Minnesota

Further Activities of the Contest Committee

Treasurer's Report

Fifty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Association

Palmer House, Chicago, March 31-April 4, 1952

Theme: "Education: Its Contribution to the American Way of Life."



# THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges  
and Secondary Schools*

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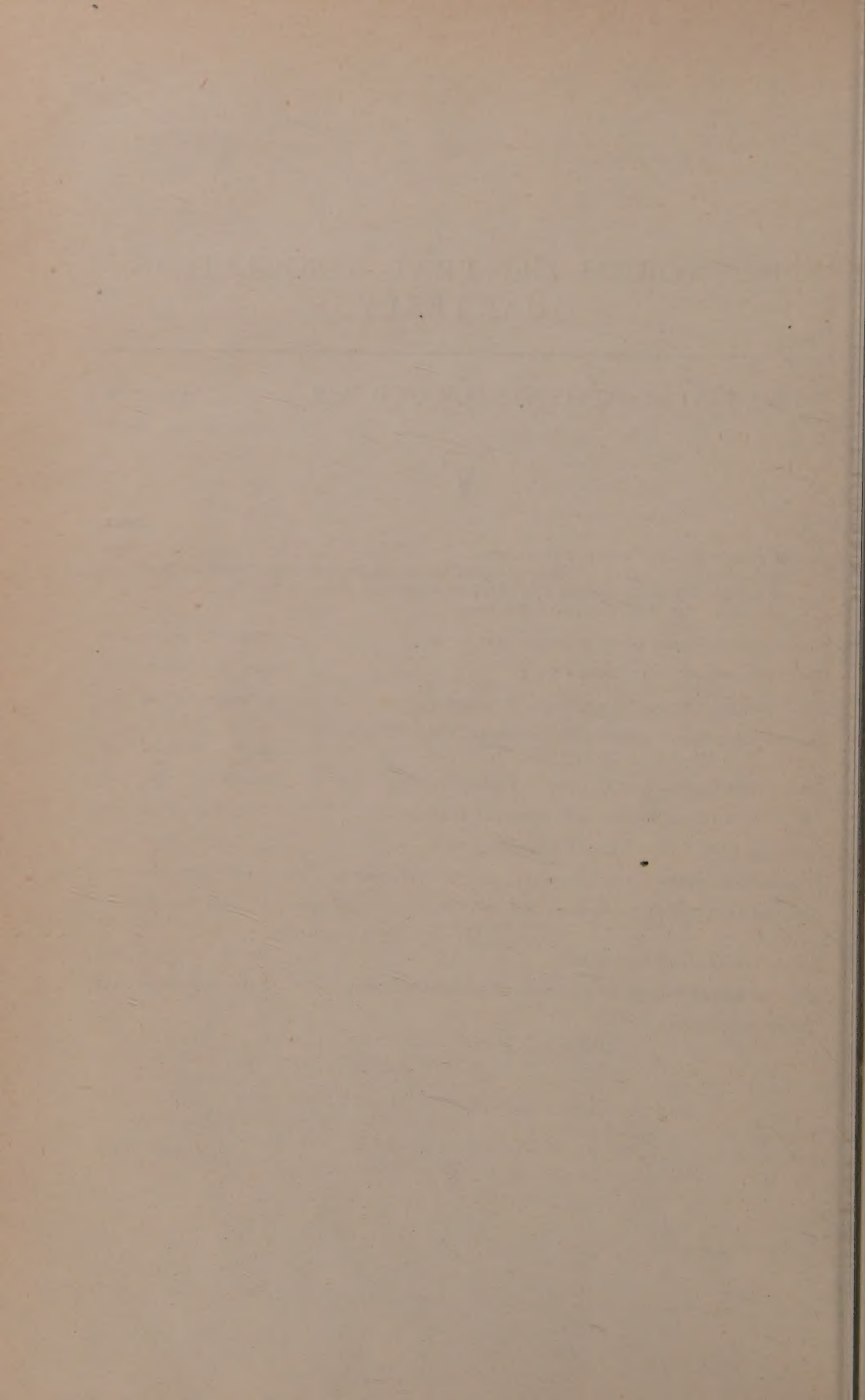
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# THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XXVI

OCTOBER 1951

Number 2

## ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

### THE ASSOCIATION LOOKS AT ATHLETICS

IN THIS ISSUE of the *QUARTERLY* are printed comprehensive reports of the Contest Committee which was organized some years ago by the Commission on Secondary Schools. These reports are really milestones in the sustained effort of the Commission to safeguard its member schools against the ever mounting tendency of numerous interests to look to the schools for the dissemination of their ideas or the promotion of their plans, many of which have only dubious if any educational value. Execution of these plans generally involves contests either among schools or within the schools, a procedure which is generally regarded as educationally undesirable; and yet one must confess that many proposals of this sort originate among educators themselves—a devious factor in the handling of the whole situation.

In light of all these circumstances the adoption of the Committee's reports last spring by the Commission on Secondary Schools is of paramount importance; and one of them, "Recommendations with Respect to Athletic Contests," promises to top all others in significance.

As everyone knows, the persistently ugly rumors and innuendoes about collegiate athletics have been shockingly substantiated by recent developments. As this is written, Al Jackson's blast at college football in the current *Atlantic Monthly* has followers of athletics—and others—abuzz. Jackson writes

from the inside as a former Big Ten player. He holds to the theme that "big time football is a poor bargain for the boys that play the game." Such episodes as the scandal at West Point, upheavals at William and Mary, and recent indictments of basketball players for graft build up the newsworthiness of his indictment. One can only surmise what the impact of all this will be upon high school athletics because to a certain extent high school and college athletics form a very obvious continuum.

This continuity is reflected in the action taken by the Executive Committee of the Association on March 30, last, to study interscholastic athletics in its member institutions both higher and secondary. On that date the following recommendation, reported also on page 225 of this issue of the *QUARTERLY*, was adopted:

The Commission on Colleges and Universities recommends that the Executive Committee appoint a committee, representing the member high schools and higher institutions, to formulate recommendations regarding the policies of the North Central Association with regard to intercollegiate athletics. This committee would also confer with officials of the athletic conference operating in North Central Association territory, discussing with those officials the deep concern of the Association with the present situation in intercollegiate athletics and the conference rules governing the conduct of intercollegiate athletics.

On June 30 the Executive Committee appointed the following individuals as members of the "Committee on Interscholastic and Intercollegiate Athletics":



J. B. Edmonson (chairman)  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Eugene Youngert  
Oak Park and River Forest High  
School  
Oak Park, Illinois

Lowell B. Fisher  
University of Illinois  
Urbana, Illinois

Glen O. Ream  
Senior High School  
Albuquerque, New Mexico

There is no reason to believe that this Committee will scamp its work. So important is this assignment that when word gets around that the Association is really attacking the problem of competitive athletics, eyes all over the country will doubtless look in this direction.

HARLAN C. KOCH

ROSENLOF LEAVES SECRETARYSHIP;  
SUCCEEDED BY BOARDMAN

IN 1937 George W. Rosenlof was elected general secretary of the North Central Association. He brought to this very important office a wide range of experience in secondary education imbedded in a dynamic devotion to the Association that has made his long term in office one of the most memorable in the history of the organization. Remarkable for his grasp of details and retentive memory, his fearless expression of opinion and sturdy adherence to principle, "George" lent coherence and direction to the work of the Association as, in the meantime, the other executive officers came and went under the limitations of tenure that the Constitution imposes. A year ago he announced his intention to leave the secretaryship with the statement that he felt that the Association had long had his services

and should have such benefits as might accrue under new talent. At the same time he praised highly the assistance given by Miss Ruth Benedict, his secretary, without whom he "could not have met the unrelenting demands" of the office. So his resignation was accepted by the Executive Committee and Charles W. Boardman, professor of education at the University of Minnesota, was elected to succeed him.

In accepting Mr. Rosenlof's resignation, the Executive Committee included the following statement in its minutes:

"In acceding to the desire of George Walter Rosenlof to terminate his service as Secretary of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Executive Committee wishes to express to him its appreciation of the many contributions which he has made to the progress and welfare of the Association.

"Mr. Rosenlof's services have been so manifold that their scope and range may be only briefly suggested. His vigorous leadership in the Commission on Secondary Schools has been influential in furthering its growth. He played an important part in the movement to find better means for evaluating secondary schools which resulted in the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Selected in 1935 as Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools, the competency and efficiency he displayed in performing the duties of this office led to his being chosen as Secretary of the Association in 1939.

"The services which Mr. Rosenlof has performed as Secretary of the Association have contributed greatly to its advancement and prestige. His knowledge of the work of the Association and its component Commissions was especially valuable in developing the constitution under which the Associa-



tion now operates. His able and efficient conduct of his office has been of great assistance to the Executive Committee in administering the affairs of the Association. His ability to obtain facilities and to provide eminent speakers has been a potent influence in the growing success of the Annual Meeting. When the Association has been confronted by serious issues or problems, his knowledge, advice, and counsel have aided the Executive Committee in finding means to solve them. In these and in many other ways, Mr. Rosenlof has rendered distinguished service to the Executive Committee and to the Association.

In behalf of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as well as for itself, the Executive Committee extends to Mr. Rosenlof its grateful appreciation of his long and valuable service and its indebtedness to him for his exemplary performance of the functions of the Office of Secretary of the Association."

Since 1924 Secretary Boardman has been a member of the faculty of the University of Minnesota. Prior to that he was a teacher and principal in secondary schools in Iowa and Minnesota. In 1938-39 he was vice-president of the North Central Association, and since that time has held various offices including the chairmanship of the Commission on Secondary Schools. He knows thoroughly the work of the Association and brings to the secretaryship personal and professional qualities of the highest order.

Last spring at its annual meeting in Chicago, the Association elected Mr. Rosenlof president of the Association. As such he will preside at the meetings of the Executive Committee of which Mr. Boardman is now secretary. Thus will the Association enjoy the benefits of the combined services of these good men. Miss Benedict is serving as Mr.

Boardman's secretary in Minneapolis, where the office of the secretary of the Association is now established.

#### APPEALS PROCEDURE BEING STUDIED

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE is charged with the responsibility of hearing appeals from the decisions of the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Colleges and Universities in their accrediting procedures. The Committee is specifically bound as follows (Constitution, Article IV, Section 3):

The Executive Committee shall have final authority to hear appeals from the decisions of the commissions, relative to the approval of universities, colleges and secondary schools and to determine the action to be taken upon such appeals.

The Executive Committee shall be under no obligation to a member university, college, or secondary school to consider any appeal from the decision or action taken by a commission unless such appeal is filed with the Executive Committee within thirty days following the Annual Meeting. Before taking final action on an appeal the Executive Committee shall request the officers of the commission concerned to make a recommendation and to submit therewith all facts pertinent to the case.

Its experience as an appellate body over many years has led the Executive Committee to re-examine this constitutional provision. On November 18, 1950, a lengthy proposal for the radical improvement of appeals procedure was discussed. In revised form it was adopted by the Executive Committee October 6. Hereafter, the following procedures will be followed:

- a. Appeals from the decisions of the Commissions shall be filed with the Secretary of the Association not sooner than 10 days and not more than 30 days following the Annual Meeting and shall represent official action of the governing bodies of the institutions concerned. The basis for such appeals shall be bias, injustice, or alleged departure from established procedures. Such allegations shall be supported by evidence in writing, submitted by the appealing institution.
- b. The Secretary of the Association shall trans-



mit such appeal to the Secretary of the Commission concerned who shall submit the appeal to the administrative committee of that Commission.

- c. The administrative committee of the appropriate Commission shall consider the allegations of bias, injustice or departure from established procedures and shall study the evidence submitted in writing by the appealing institution. It shall then submit to the Executive Committee its report and recommendations together with the allegations and the evidence received from the appealing institution. Thereupon, the Executive Committee, having considered the allegations, the supporting evidence, and the recommendations of the administrative committee, shall take final action upon the appeal.

#### COSTS ARE RISING IN THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION, TOO

THE REGISTRATION FEE at the forthcoming Fifty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Association in Chicago, April 1-5, 1952, has been set at \$2.00 per person. This action was taken by the Executive Committee on June 30, 1951, to help meet ever-rising expenses of the Association. At that time the Committee was authorized that "the subscription fee for the QUARTERLY be fixed at \$4.00 a year with a special rate of \$3.00 to libraries. Since copies will be \$1.00 with the exception of the July issue which will be \$1.75 per copy."

The treasurer's report for the fiscal year which closed June 30 shows how the money of the Association is spent. It is published elsewhere in this number of the QUARTERLY.

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## EDUCATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS AT THE INTERNATIONAL LEVEL<sup>1</sup>

JOHN W. GARDNER

*The Carnegie Corporation of New York, New York City*

I DON'T KNOW of anything that illustrates more vividly the confusion and bafflement of the ordinary citizen in a world which seems to be coming down around his ears than an incident which occurred in London during the war. This incident took place at the time of the bombings. After a particularly severe raid, a rescue squad was seeking survivors in a house which had been completely leveled. They saw in the midst of the wreckage an old man sitting in a bathtub, stark naked, holding his head in his hands and muttering. Pulling beams and girders aside, they finally got to him and one of the rescuers said, "Are you all right, fellow, are you all right?" and the old man muttered, "I can't understand it, I can't understand it." The rescuer said, "What can't you understand, fellow?" and the old man replied, "I just can't understand it! All I did was pull the plug and the whole house came down!"

I am going to talk about education which prepares the citizen to play an intelligent role with respect to international issues. I am *not* going to talk about education for specialists in international relations. I am not speaking primarily of those courses labelled "International Relations" which make their appearance at the college level. I am concerned with education from the primary school level through college; and what I am going to say should have implications for the whole range of the social studies and the humanities.

Our task is to educate the student to meet his eventual responsibilities as a citizen with respect to international affairs. What have we learned from recent research in the social sciences and

from recent world events, from recent developments in education, which will enable us to do this job more effectively?

To begin at the beginning, we have learned from recent work in the social sciences to think more clearly about the actual role of the citizen with respect to international affairs. We cannot educate the future citizen effectively unless we have some conception of the role for which we are educating him; and to date our thinking in this respect has been slovenly in the extreme.

A great many earnest educators have made the assumption that, if democracy means anything at all, then a citizen of a democratic nation must be sufficiently well-informed to arrive at wise decisions with respect to any and all of the critical issues which crowd our international agenda. Now obviously this just doesn't make sense. It is beyond the capacity of any busy citizen to keep himself well-informed on any substantial portion of the crucial issues in world affairs. This is a simple enough fact, but the specialists on international affairs have failed to understand it or to act upon it.

I was talking a few days ago with an extremely able American just back from Indonesia and he was in a high state of indignation because the American people appeared to him to be relatively ignorant of the political and economic situation in that country. Another friend of mine is active in the movement toward European Union, and he is equally indignant because most of the people he meets are ill-informed on this vital subject. Still another friend who works with the United Nations is always grieving because the average citizen couldn't possibly sum-

<sup>1</sup> Delivered before the Association at Chicago, March 31, 1951.



marize the charter of the United Nations.

Now I sympathize with all of these earnest men, who believe profoundly in the importance of what they are doing and who believe without the least arrogance that the average citizen should be fully informed about it. But I rebel at the implications of their belief. Some years ago Whitehead pointed out that the whole problem of education is controlled by lack of time. He pointed out that, if Methuselah was not a well educated man, it was his own fault, but that for the rest of us time is a controlling factor. How do we find time in the educational system for all this? How does the busy citizen find time for it? And lest you misunderstand my reference to the busy citizen, let me say that I am not speaking of some mythical man in the street; I'm speaking of my neighbors, I'm speaking of my professional colleagues, I'm speaking of the people attending this conference. And I'm speaking of myself. I count myself as conscientious as the next man in these matters, and I read widely on international affairs; but there are a vast number of critical issues facing the United States today on which I couldn't possibly arrive at a wise decision.

The first simple reality to get firmly in mind if you are interested in education for international understanding is that the demands upon the citizen to be well-informed have far outrun his capacity to absorb or assimilate information.

Now these matters need no longer remain in the realm of guess work, thanks to the excellent research which is now being done in the study of public opinion. It is clear from recent studies of the relation of public opinion to policy formation that we must arrive at a different and more realistic conception of the citizen's role with

respect to foreign policy. No one has clarified this point more effectively than Gabriel Almond in his important recent book entitled *The American People and Foreign Policy*. "There are inherent limitations in modern society," he points out, "on the capacity of the public to understand the issues and grasp the significance of the most important problems of public policy. This is particularly the case with foreign policy where the issues are especially complex and remote."

This is not to say that the general public is either totally ignorant or totally impotent in matters of foreign policy. The layman has a certain broad orientation toward foreign policy; he has certain generalized attitudes, values, and expectations. He must inevitably impose upon his chosen leaders the responsibility for the appraisal of specific issues and the formulation of specific policy decisions; but then, in a rough and cumulative fashion, he weighs these appraisals and decisions in the light of his generalized values and expectations. Thus loosely, unprecisely, and in long-run terms, he has a *kind* of control over foreign policy, not a firm and tight control, but a control that statesmen have found it perilous to ignore.

All of this has certain obvious implications for our present problem of how best to prepare the student for his future responsibilities as a citizen. It suggests that we would do well to avoid heavy concentration on specific international issues or specific facts and figures for their own sake. It suggests, as Gabriel Almond points out, that we must relinquish the unrealistic effort to make an expert of every layman. If the layman influences foreign policy chiefly by setting rough limits to the actions of his chosen leaders, limits established in terms of his broad and generalized attitudes and values, then



we would do well to approach the matter at this fundamental level and ask ourselves how we may best deal with these attitudes and values. How may we develop in the student a broad orientation toward foreign affairs which will serve him well; how may we develop attitudes, values, expectations, which will provide a sound and solid base-line against which to measure the decisions of his chosen representatives. It is in terms of these fundamentals that we must shape our efforts.

Now I'm going to suggest that there's another reason for emphasis on the broadest and simplest of fundamental orientations. The honest, naked fact is that we still understand very inadequately the great social forces which have the world in grip. You will find many who analyze these forces with the utmost glibness; but the truth for all to see is that we are still learning, slowly and oh so painfully, what kind of a world it is that we're living in, and what kind of a rôle the United States must play in that world. Columnists and commentators and other paid pundits must appear omniscient, but you and I can enjoy the luxury of confessing *our* ignorance—and *theirs*. We talk optimistically of President Truman's Point Four Program—the purpose of which is to bring technological assistance to nonindustrialized peoples, but we honestly don't know how to accomplish the fearfully complex business of bringing the wonders of industrial civilization to peoples living in pre-industrial cultures. We talk earnestly of exporting democracy, but we are frankly and abysmally ignorant of the exportability of this doctrine. We now know beyond all possible doubt that this is immensely more complicated than we had once thought, but we don't know much more than that. The demographers have shown us unequivocally that much of the world faces

grievous problems of overpopulation, and we shudder and try not to think about it because we don't know just what to do about it—and neither do the demographers. One could list many, many other areas of ignorance.

I do not say these things as an indictment of the experts on international affairs. They would be the first to agree that their field of study is in a period of ferment and change and that they must frankly grope for new answers.

What I do wish to say is that we are in as much danger of teaching our youngsters meaningless and outdated clichés as we are of leaving them totally ignorant. They will not remain totally ignorant in any case. The great, glaring realities of modern world affairs and the role of the United States therein are too pressing to escape the notice of any citizen. But he may be assiduously taught by earnest teachers to apply to these realities a set of outworn labels and categories which will do far more to confuse than to enlighten him.

Now I confess that all that I've said so far is somewhat on the negative side. I've been trying to emphasize some of the things we cannot effectively teach. What can we say in *positive* terms? Suppose that we have satisfied ourselves that in educating the student for international understanding we must provide him with certain very broad orientations and understandings which will provide a sound and solid base for the rôle which he must play. How and where shall we begin?

I am going to say that we *must* begin by providing the student with a knowledge of his own country and his own heritage. In international relations as in personal relations, self-knowledge is the beginning of wisdom. This is one of those ancient and perpetually re-discovered truths. One cannot arrive at sound and dependable judgments of others until he has some understand-



ing of himself. To understand other nations and our relation to them, we must know ourselves—who we are, what we are, and how we got that way.

Obviously, this is a task which must be shared, and participated in vigorously, by a wide range of subject matter fields, from the primary school through college. Geography, history, literature, economics, sociology, political science, all can contribute importantly to our self-knowledge. But, if we are to achieve the desired results, all of these fields will have to approach the problem with a clear and conscious understanding of the objective here sought. The objective is to provide every student with an understanding of his own society and an understanding of why it is distinctively the kind of society that it is. This involves acquainting him with the Western tradition upon which our civilization is based. It involves acquainting him with the economic, political, and sociological factors which shaped the pattern of our national life. It involves helping him to understand why it is that Americans make the characteristic assumptions they do make about man and life and society; why they view the rest of the world in certain ways; why they organize their social, political, and economic life in certain ways. It involves acquainting him with the values which Americans have cherished, and with the ways in which they have sought to realize those values.

One might argue that we hardly need emphasize the importance of such education since many of the courses now taught do already systematically acquaint the student with his own society. It is true that a very large proportion of what we teach the student is in fact information about his own society. But we have a lot to learn about how to teach these subjects in such a way as to give the student an under-

standing of his own society as contrasted with other societies and why it is distinctively what it is. Sheer quantity of information isn't enough. We could devote the whole curriculum to courses which stuff the student with facts about the United States and its history, and still fall miserably short of our objective. The point is not to turn out students who are walking encyclopedias on the United States. The objective is *not* information but understanding—an understanding of our society and its roots, of our special ways of looking at the world, of our distinctive American character.

Now to some of you this may seem a somewhat self-centered and perhaps even chauvinistic approach to the subject of international affairs. Needless to say, I do not think of it in those terms. I am a psychologist by profession, and current research in social psychology has demonstrated clearly enough that some of the gravest difficulties in an individual's relations with others stem from inadequate self-knowledge. I am sure that this is just as true of nations. Until we understand ourselves with a moderate degree of objectivity, we wear a set of distortion lenses in viewing the rest of the world. Until we understand ourselves, we can never appraise with any degree of realism the potentialities of the United States in world affairs. And unless we understand ourselves, we shall make the most naive assumptions about other people, and about the capacity of other people to know *us* and to admire us and to be like us.

Self-knowledge, then, is the first requirement which I would stress in laying a broad foundation for citizen understanding of international affairs. The *second* requirement, I should say, is recognition of, and respect for, the fact of *cultural differences*. In all societies and throughout recorded history, man-



kind has faced the same basic problems: the immutable necessities of survival, the requirement for an orderly pattern for social living, the need for a belief system, no matter how primitive, which makes some sense of the immemorial woes and anxieties as well as the ever-springing aspirations of man. The work of the modern cultural anthropologists has demonstrated more clearly than ever before the rich variety of ways in which mankind has met these basic problems. And the anthropologists have shown us in detail how each of these varied solutions can be understood in its own terms.

The fact of cultural differences is, of course, *not* a discovery of modern social science; it has certainly been a familiar fact throughout the history of mankind. But the cultural anthropologist has released us from the sterile and constricting view of cultural differences which treats all cultural ways but one's own as bizarre, enigmatic, and either quaintly amusing or faintly repulsive. We need no longer view the strange ways of cultures other than our own with a disturbing mixture of condescension, curiosity, sentimentality, and ill-concealed distaste.

Now, when we must spare no effort to provide wise leadership to what remains of the free world, it is more than ever necessary that we understand in their own terms the needs and hopes, the fears and anxieties of peoples very different from ourselves. As Clyde Kluckhohn has pointed out in his recent book, *Mirror for Man*, "As a result of the accidents of history, every people has a more or less coherent body of characteristic presuppositions about the world . . . [more] than the external facts about a nation must be taken into account. Their sentiments and the unconscious assumptions which they characteristically make about the world are also data which must be dis-

covered and respected." The anthropologists have shown us how we can understand the unfamiliar ways of other peoples in terms of their own cultural presuppositions. This does not mean that, having understood another culture, we shall inevitably admire it. We may disapprove of it. But we shall do so on the basis of understanding and not in terms of a blind and corroding hostility to all ways that differ from our own.

Now I am *not* going to suggest that we provide the student with a comprehensive anthropological introduction to all the peoples of the world. I am suggesting that we provide him with a way of looking at cultural differences, a way of understanding and respecting cultural patterns which differ from his own.

This will take some doing, particularly below the college level, partly because we still lack appropriate teaching materials and partly because we lack teachers who have had training for this particular task. As I have suggested, I am convinced that we must look to a broader application of the concepts of modern anthropology and sociology, and these have not yet been widely grasped by those members of the teaching profession who might apply them in teaching. But this is a process which can be accelerated. I am quite sure in my own mind that the fundamental concepts of modern anthropology and sociology are destined to have a much more prominent role in secondary school teaching. I am further convinced that the day is not far when *all* students at the college level will be required to take an elementary course of some kind based upon modern sociology, anthropology, and social psychology.

I have another suggestion for education at the college level which I advance more tentatively but for which I

do ask your consideration. I believe that insofar as it is possible, every college student should be given the opportunity to become rather closely familiar with some culture other than his own. I would urge this especially for those who plan to teach, particularly in the humanities and social studies. There are in the colleges and universities today a great many so-called area study programs, and we should consider seriously the value of these programs not just as training grounds for the expert but as contributors to liberal education. This is particularly feasible in the case of Spanish-speaking cultures since the language is taught in most high schools and colleges, and there are many Spanish-speaking countries within easy reach for summer travel. It would be almost as easy in the case of French-speaking cultures.

I have already said that we cannot understand other countries until we understand our own. I should now like to turn that around and suggest that an understanding of another culture will contribute profoundly to an understanding of our own society. Self-knowledge and knowledge of others are mutually nourishing.

Now, the third requirement I would list for improvement of our education for international understanding is greater emphasis upon the non-Western World. Here, of course, we are greatly handicapped by lack of teaching materials and lack of adequately trained teachers. We are faced with the task of rewriting our textbooks, of developing new teaching materials, and of revising our courses to take into account a part of the world which we have too long neglected. We can neglect it no longer, as every morning paper bears witness. The day is past when scholars can write books which they label *World Histories* which leave out any reference to the countries

of Asia, or who write histories of philosophy which make no reference to oriental philosophy. Our world is no longer an uncomplicated North Atlantic millpond. We had better be fully aware of the great teeming continent of Asia, or we shall be educated willy-nilly at great cost to ourselves.

You will recognize from what I said at the beginning of this talk that I am not suggesting that we familiarize the student with all of the details of Asiatic life nor attempt to make him an expert on Asia. But we must make him aware of Asia.

The final requirement which I wish to mention here as a foundation stone of improved education for international understanding is the theme of United States responsibility. I think that we have come a long way in this matter. I am convinced that the overwhelming majority of Americans have gotten beyond the conception of our rôle in the world which corresponds to the school boy's definition of a marsupial. "A marsupial," according to this youngster, "is an animal with a pouch in the middle of his stomach into which he can retire when he is hard pressed!"

We must continue to debate vigorously the issues of how and when and where we should make our influence felt, and there can be a wide range of honest differences of opinion on these questions. When such differences of opinion do occur, I do not think we clarify matters by tossing around such epithets as isolationist or interventionist. I think that there is now a fairly widespread agreement as to our present responsibility for wise participation in world affairs. It is important that we provide students with an understanding of why this must be so and what it implies. Such an understanding, I believe, would include education as to our unquestionable



strength and influence throughout the world, and demonstration of the incapable responsibilities that go with power.

So much for the requirements which seem to me fundamental. Perhaps it will seem strange to you that I have limited myself to such very simple matters. I have not talked about the many perplexing issues which are at the heart of our international decisions today. I have not touched upon some of the most promising new developments in international studies. But I have restrained myself in these matters by design. If we really and earnestly want to educate each future citizen for his international responsibilities then we must talk in these simple terms. I might have held your attention better if I had talked of some of the exciting new research on such thorny problems as conservation, population pressures, the ideological war, and so forth. But we have a much more fundamental job to do, a job of enormous dimensions, and our time and our energies are necessarily limited. Unless we get down to fundamentals we shall never come to grips with the problem. We cannot give every student a grasp of the complex issues of the day, no

matter how exciting and urgent they seem to us; we *can* give every student a broad orientation toward international affairs which will stand him in solid good stead in a troubled world.

We cannot accomplish this through the insertion into the curriculum of a few new courses. We can only move forward by setting certain very broad objectives and then by persuading all of the fields in the social studies and the humanities that they must participate in bringing us closer to these objectives. I have sought in this talk to suggest some of these broad objectives.

Whenever I participate in a conference on a subject which calls urgently for action I recall the words: "At the day of Doom, men shall be judged according to their fruits. It will not be said then, Did you believe?, but, Were you doers or talkers only?" If we intend to be talkers only then we can range freely over every exciting issue of the day and leave our students with a jumble of rag-tag impressions of this problem and that. If we take the more sober alternative, we shall settle down to the long and difficult task of working collaboratively toward certain very broad, comprehensive objectives.

## EDUCATION AND THE BASIC HUMAN ISSUE<sup>1</sup>

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I CONSIDER it a great honor to be invited by the North Central Association to participate in this discussion of the rôle of education in improving human relationships. Surely no other group has been more active in the study of this subject or more effective in promoting democratic harmony in America than have the educators. That much remains to be done goes without saying, but neither the urgency of the need nor the bitterness of some of our critics should blind us to the great advances which we have made in recent years, nor to the vitality of the leadership which American education has provided. I am not, therefore, so naïve as to suppose that I am expected to make an evangelistic address on this occasion. Nor do I regard myself as an expert with special wisdom to impart to the unenlightened. I speak merely as one college dean who, like every member of this audience, has lived day by day with the problem of human relations, groping for some means of bringing education more directly to bear upon this most important of social questions.

I make this disclaimer at the outset because I feel that educators in general are becoming impatient with much of the talk which they hear about the subject. Too often such talk has seemed less an instrument for democratic decision than a substitute for action, an excuse for inaction. It has enabled us to silence our social conscience without involving us too immediately in social realities. Nearly every mail brings an invitation to participate in a community institute, a group

work conference, a workshop in human relations, a round-table discussion, a panel, a "buzz" session, a joint committee meeting, or a seminar in inter-group harmony. We attend these gatherings and listen to speakers who seek to stimulate us, to challenge us, to alert us, to give us a sense of awareness or a sense of involvement, to inspire us, and to ask us for contributions. I do not wish to sound unappreciative; I have sometimes arranged these meetings myself; I have frequently attended them; often I have learned a great deal from them. But I hope I may be pardoned for wondering occasionally where all this talk leads and whether it may not in some measure be clouding the very issues it seeks to resolve. Certainly men and women must be made aware of the acute need for a more harmonious, more democratic social order. But having been made aware of this need, and having informed themselves concerning its implications, they must not assume that they will fulfill their responsibilities merely by engaging in further discussion.

The question, then, which I wish to raise this afternoon, and to which I shall propose at least a tentative and partial answer, concerns the practical bearing of these much-discussed theories upon educational policy. What are we as American educators to do about the improvement of human relations in our country?

Let me say first of all that we must take a broad view of this problem. As I see it, our concern is not merely with those aspects of group behavior which involve social injustice. It is of course true that when tensions develop and

<sup>1</sup> Delivered before the Association at Chicago, March 30, 1951.



basic fears and insecurities are aroused, human relations may deteriorate and produce bitterness, discrimination, or even violence. Such instances inevitably stir the emotions and distract attention from the vast bulk of orderly, democratic, and unsensational group situations in which reason and fair play prevail. I do not say this to minimize our failures in human relations but rather to remind us all of the heartening fact that men and women do indeed know how to work together and that they often succeed in joining forces for their common welfare.

As educators we are concerned with all kinds of human relationships, including those in the family, in the child's play group, in school, in business, in civic affairs, national life, and international relations. This, to be sure, is a broadly inclusive definition of the problem, but in each of these various respects education has played a part; in each it has had both its successes and its failures.

To speak of human relations, then, is not at all to raise a topic new to education. Rather it is to suggest a problem which cuts across most if not all the studies ever pursued in school or college, a problem fundamental to every human life. And when we ask ourselves what education can do toward the improvement of human relations, we are directing our attention to the social aspect of all educational activity.

## I

Inevitably we think first of the immediate, short range implication of our problem: What can we do in our own institutions to promote more harmonious, more democratic relationships?

It is not always easy to maintain an atmosphere of mutual respect and mutual forbearance in an educational

institution, yet there, if anywhere, our real faith—or lack of faith—in democracy reveals itself. In schoolroom and college hall, on playground and campus, among students, faculty, and staff, we must constantly seek to maintain soundly democratic relationships. Whatever the difficulties may be, the attempt is vital to our whole educational purpose. No amount of idealistic classroom precept can have as much immediate influence on the lives around us as does the example we set in the total life of our institution. For no matter how effusively we praise democracy in our statements to the press or in our commencement addresses, our day by day practice is what really matters.

Admittedly society often makes undemocratic demands upon education, and administrators are sometimes hard pressed to maintain peace between school and community. Public opinion often seems to expect deans and principals to keep such firm control over their respective institutions that students, faculty, administration, and staff shall dwell together in unruffled serenity. Sweetness and light shall prevail at all times; everyone shall be well-behaved and submissive, and no one shall raise any embarrassing questions. This would not be democracy; it would be educational stagnation. In that society of men and women, boys and girls, which makes up an educational institution, individuals must have at least as much freedom as they would enjoy elsewhere in the community. People—even teachers! even students!—must be free to disagree with each other, with their employers, and with administration officers; they must be free to voice their opinions and to vote according to their convictions. Only an apathetic or intimidated faculty and student body would live placidly together in “unruffled

serenity." When human beings feel free and self-confident in their relations with each other, the daily give and take of conflicting ideas may well seem somewhat turbulent. Questions—some of them embarrassing—will be asked, men will disagree, opinions will be expressed, compromises will be reached, and policy will finally be decided by vote. In this kind of non-stagnant, democratic atmosphere education will breathe freely and human relations will flourish. It is the duty of educational administrators to provide the necessary ventilation and then to ask, "Are there any questions?"

All kinds of queries will be forthcoming: Shall education be adapted to the needs of individual students, or shall it rigidly adhere to the classical disciplines? Shall janitors join the union? Shall women teachers be free to smoke if they wish? Then there are the questions involving race, religion, and nationality: Shall members of minority groups be admitted to our schools and colleges? (A century ago the troublesome question was merely, "Shall women be admitted to our colleges?") If admitted, shall they be allowed to join clubs and fraternities? Do you mean to say that they attend social functions with all the other students? Shall they be admitted to the dining rooms and dormitories? Are you going to employ them as members of your faculty?

These questions, and questions like them, will seem troublesome and embarrassing to some people in our communities, but every educator knows that they cannot be evaded indefinitely. They raise fundamental democratic issues, and unless they are brought into the open for free discussion they may become sources of resentment and suspicion destructive to educational morale. These, then, are issues

which put our philosophy of human relations to the test.

I am well aware that some very conscientious people will insist that these questions permit of only one answer, that they are moral issues which must be resolved immediately and without compromise, and that unenlightened objectors must simply be brushed aside. I am disposed to think otherwise. To resolve such issues by administrative fiat is to circumvent the first principles of democratic society. Idealists may become impatient, but decisions involving various elements in any community must be arrived at through the participation of all those elements. Admittedly, such democratic procedures often seem painfully slow, but good leadership can speed the process. Education must provide that leadership.

Democratic practices in the schools and colleges, and good democratic relationships between education and the community will go a long way toward giving the American people more faith in their fellow human beings and greater skill in working with them for common ends. By all means let us hasten the day when education in this country will be more perfectly democratic in all its human relationships, but let us not make the mistake of thinking that that day can be hastened by undemocratic expedients.

I do not for a moment mean to suggest that good democratic practices are uniquely the responsibility of education—as though democracy were merely an academic and utopian form of society. Such practices should characterize all organized human activity, whether business, governmental, religious, or cultural. But education must accept the fact that society justly expects it to set a good example.



If educators cannot themselves put democratic theories into practice, who then will make the attempt?

## II

But this is only the first step. The distinctive and characteristic contribution which education has made to the improvement of human relations has been through the social sciences. When one thinks of the great discoveries of the anthropologist, the sociologist, and the psychologist in recent years, one realizes that our basic knowledge of human society is much more extensive and more applicable than it was fifty or even twenty-five years ago. In general it may be said that the objective study of human behavior has led us to attribute more and still more of it to environmental causes—often more or less hidden but always powerful in determining the way human beings conduct their lives. Back of the overt anti-social act we have learned to look for the culture patterns, the economic fears, and the hidden anxieties. Such thinking has led us from the consideration of juvenile delinquency to the study of urban housing conditions and thence to the practical problems of slum clearance. Similarly our study of race prejudice has revealed it as a symptom often of economic or psychological insecurity and has in turn directed our attention to such problems as unemployment and poverty.

This kind of social research has been of the utmost value, and we need much more of it. But while the search goes on for these primary sources of friction and for ways of eliminating them, we have an immediate problem to deal with. Group tensions may indeed be only surface problems, but they are very real obstacles to good human relations. And in recent years social

scientists have been actively developing new techniques for dealing with these tensions. New discussion methods, group dynamics, sociometrics, socio-drama, role-playing, nondirective or client-centered therapy, all give evidence of the continuing search for techniques to facilitate good human relationships.

But merely to list these specialized methods suggests a danger to which education seems peculiarly susceptible, the danger of specialism, of making human relations the exclusive property of an academic cult, a professional inner-circle. However admirable the motives of such specialization, I cannot with enthusiasm look forward to the establishment of an American Association for the Scientific Study of Human Relations, with its own jargon, its own learned articles published in its own *Journal*, and its membership engaging in spirited academic discussions at annual meetings. I have a deep conviction that research in the materials and methods of human relations must remain the responsibility, not of a particular educational faction, but of all serious students of society, whatever their specialized interests. For what we have here is an interest and an emphasis touching all provinces of knowledge. It is not a new social science but rather, perhaps, the oldest of the social arts.

## III

Although the social sciences have aided greatly in the improvement of human relations, we cannot expect those studies to do the work alone. The American democratic spirit is more than a political doctrine, more than an economic theory or a social experiment. It is a philosophical ideal which is deeply imbedded in our national culture. It is nothing less than a funda-

mental faith in the inviolability of the human spirit, a respect for the dignity and worth of individual men and women. This faith is central to our Jewish and Christian religious tradition, and it is implicit in the social and political history of our country. But it is not, unfortunately, an idea which Americans understand very well. We have given it lip service, but we have never really analyzed it; throughout our history we have tended simply to take it for granted. Like the authors of the Declaration of Independence, we have been content to hold this truth self-evident.

To our consternation we now find that a large segment of the world denies our axiom altogether. The Communists have persuaded many people that individual man is a negligible pawn, his life ruthlessly controlled by economic forces. They have argued that ultimate loyalties must be directed toward the collectivist, autocratic state rather than toward individual human beings. They have imposed their veto on our contention that the private, unique spirit of man is the thing of greatest worth, that the state is responsible to and for man, not man to and for the state. Thus is the world divided upon the basic human issue.

It is just here that I see the most far-reaching contribution which education can make to the strengthening of our democratic social order. It must assume the major responsibility for giving Americans a better understanding of their own democracy, not by arbitrary indoctrination, not by chauvinistic slogans, but by being more truly democratic itself, by promoting the study of our social structure, and, most fundamental of all, by presenting a historical and philosophical analysis of the growth of our national culture and by helping us all to realize more

vividly the idealism behind the American dream.

It is no longer safe for us to take our liberties for granted or to assume with our ancestors of 1776 that human freedom is axiomatic. The Communists have attacked us on philosophical grounds and have offered their own concept of social organization as an ideal to which men are urged to dedicate their lives. Many men have embraced the Communist view with a kind of religious zeal. It will not suffice for us to reply complacently that our philosophy of human rights is "self-evident," that it needs no defense. We must state our case to the world, and we must base our arguments on philosophical and idealistic grounds. We cannot do so unless the American people themselves understand the logic of their position and the nobility of their ideal.

In the past we have shown a regrettable tendency to urge our case, not on philosophical or idealistic grounds, but with the materialistic challenge, "Compare our high standard of living with your own!" Now electric refrigerators and automobiles and pop-up toasters are all useful by-products of American life; no one of us wants to be without these conveniences. They are not ideals to die for, however. Our own ancestors lived without them only a few years ago. Millions of people in the world live without them today and are quite unmoved by any desire for them, having a prior concern for food and clothing and shelter.

Americans should take to heart the words of Barbara Ward, the British economist. "An ideal," says she, "has never yet in human history been defeated by no ideal at all." American response to Communist and other authoritarian arguments has often seemed to suggest that we are bank-



rupt of ideals. Quite the contrary is true. We have inherited one of the great ideals of the world, the concept of human worth which dignifies every man, woman, and child with a soul he can call his own. We know very well that we still fall lamentably short of realizing our dream, but we continue to believe that each one of us, whatever his shortcomings and frailties, matters somehow in the American scheme of things.

This is our primary assumption concerning all human relationships, and whether we know it or not it is the assumption which distinguishes our social ideal from that of the Communists. It is our best answer to the issue which divides mankind, and it is an answer with powerful persuasive force. It is a concept somewhat removed from the province of the social sciences, for it involves a value-judgment beyond the reach of scientific measurement. It derives, rather, from a vision of humanity which Jefferson, Lincoln, Emerson, Walt Whitman, and Mark Twain all share with Shakespeare and with the Founder of Christianity, but to which Karl Marx and the Communists take exception.

If Americans are to be made more clearly aware of their own philosophical position, the whole basis of our study of human relationships must be broadened. We must by no means ignore the social sciences, but we cannot rest our case merely upon economics and social-

psychology. There is work here for the historian, the philosopher, the poet, the novelist, the musician, the artist. I am not suggesting the need for new courses of study; the humanities already have their materials well organized. But I ask that they recognize their own deeper relevance to these clouded times in which we must live together. In a word, the humanities must assume their full responsibility in the education of Americans. We must look to them, not for cold bodies of knowledge, but for the living record of man's long struggle to achieve his full stature as man—to attain that dignity and respect which he is now offered by the American democratic ideal.

As education comes to grips with the basic human issue, it can only give the democratic answer: People, as such, do matter. Human relations in our society must begin with that primary faith in individual men and women. Education must apply this democratic faith to its own organization and program; it must employ all the resources of social research in studying the operation of this faith; it must teach the full meaning of this faith to the American people. This is a heavy responsibility, but it is consistent with the great hopes which democratic nations have always reposed in their schools and colleges. It is a responsibility, I believe, which education is ready to assume.

## THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL BUILDS HUMAN RELATIONS<sup>1</sup>

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THE VERY THEME of this 1951 Meeting, "Education for the Improvement of Human Relationships," is a challenge, showing as it does how deep is your concern to do something constructive about our old world's Public Problem Number One: *human relationships*, the relationships of person with person, of group with group, of race with race, of nation with nation. Certainly the need to improve human relationships is glaringly apparent every time we open a newspaper in any community—even here in Chicago! That need, and how to go about meeting it, has become in our time the imperative fourth R in the school program. Along with reading, writing, and arithmetic we are now stressing human relationships as never before. And that is exactly as it should be, as it must be, if we school people are to share in the advancement of our democratic society.

In his *Masque of the Red Death*, Edgar Allen Poe tells how the medieval Prince Prospero sealed the walls of his castle so that he and his nobles might dine and dance while the horrible plague of the "red death" ravished the countryside around them. Poe shows how those sealed walls provided no protection; they proved instead a hollow mockery; the fearful Red Death still thrust itself into the very ballrooms of the citadel. In that same way do the realities of life today insistently thrust through the academic insulation of our school and college walls. The social plagues of prejudice, cynicism, fear, and hatred are everywhere about us; they ravage human relationships in our own communities as well as in the larger region, nation, and world. We all know this is true. We all agree that

ideals must be expressed in action. Most of us feel that our secondary schools and colleges must attack these problems in fundamental fashion. Yet each of us, I am sure, often feels baffled, even frustrated, in the face of this gigantic task.

Sometimes I wonder, as you must do, whether we adults of today have the quality of imagination sufficient to brief our young people for the kind of world in which they have to carve out their destiny. We are the last earth-bound generation; they are the first air-borne generation. They so desperately need wise guidance—and we are so devoted to our traditional modes of thought, to our petty academic prejudices, to our compartmentalized vision of their needs! Who are we to guide these young people into this second half of the twentieth century, into this Atomic Age that must yet prove so wondrous or so tragic? Yet guide them we must, in the best light we can find, for that is our responsibility. It is also our opportunity. We are their teachers, and their schooling is in our hands. What resources, then, have we for developing modern youth education that is at once realistic for this age, democratic in procedure, and effective in results? What can we now do through education to improve human relationships in our own schools and communities? For human relationships, like religion, begin right at home, in our own backyard, not in some distant time or place. It is in the local community, then, that our campaign for bettered human relationships must begin. And in that local community where does responsibility center? Of course in the schools! society's chief formal agency for child, youth and adult education.

<sup>1</sup> Delivered before the Association at Chicago, March 30, 1951.



Now comes the big question: Do we school people really accept that responsibility, and do we adequately act upon it? Have we actually brought that fourth R into the heart of our school and college programs, so that it permeates, invigorates, and liberates the education of youth today? Or is the Educational Policies Commission correct when it paints quite an opposite picture of the typical college preparatory and liberal arts curriculum:

Setting: A democracy struggling against strangulation in an era marked by confused loyalties in the political realm, by unrest and deprivation, by much unnecessary ill health, by high-pressure propaganda, by war, by many broken and ill-adjusted homes, by foolish spending, by high crime rates, by bad housing, and by a myriad of other urgent, real human problems. And what are the children in this school, in this age, in this culture, learning? They are learning that the square of the sum of two numbers equals the sum of their squares plus twice their product; that Millard Fillmore was the thirteenth President of the United States and held office from January 10, 1850 to March 4, 1853; that the capital of Honduras is Tegucigalpa; that there were two Peloponnesian wars and three Punic wars; that Latin verbs meaning to command, obey, please, displease, resist and the like take the dative; and that a gerund is a neuter verbal noun used in the oblique cases of the singular and governing the same case as its verb.

A damning indictment, is it not? To be sure, it was drawn over a dozen years ago. Is that picture now, in 1951, only a travesty of an improved situation, a bitter caricature of the real scene today? Or is it still a good, spotlighted summary of the traditional, academic curriculum characteristic of so many school and college programs?

Surely our high schools and colleges must help people to face life's many personal and social problems frankly, and to know and use all available resources for solving or enduring them. Certainly we must educate folks to live their lives fully, effectively, creatively, and as joyously as may be possible. Any school which stands

aloof from the real problems of living today and tomorrow defeats its own primary function in a free society. It gives only a hothouse learning, sending out from its portals young men and women fundamentally unready to grapple with the insistent issues of this second half of the twentieth century. That is precisely why any practical approach to improved human relationships through education must be a fundamental one, must involve speedy development of the *community-type* school and college which stand in sharp contrast to the conventional institutions we all know so well.

Just what is meant, you may ask, by a "community-type" school or college? Is this some new legal entity, established as such by law or by administrative fiat? Not at all. Is it, then, a novel type of building, expressly designed for adult use as well as child education? Not necessarily. Well then, is this merely the latest name for any school in a rural region, or in a small community? Certainly not, even though the National Education Association's Department of Rural Education has again announced its "Drive-In Conferences for Community School Administrators," by which it apparently means only that. Neither is a community school just any school in a larger city which serves exclusively its own neighborhood as Atlanta, Georgia seems to have assumed when it announced that on September 1, 1947, it would "convert" its elementary and high schools into community schools. All such seizures of the term "community school" distort and confuse the real meaning of our generation's most significant development in school education: the concept and practice of the life-centered Community School.

What, then, is this community

school, and how does it go about improving human relationships? Seven distinct characteristics of such a school are now evident. Unless a given school has most of these characteristics in high degree and all of them in some, it has no right to be termed a "community school." Such, at least, is the judgment of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* and of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, to mention only two sources which cannot lightly be disregarded.<sup>1</sup>

But let's dally with definitions no longer. Let's examine at once those seven characteristics of the community school. Each of these characteristics is actually a professional "venture-area" into which we must now move with increasing speed, enthusiasm, and skill. In that very process of venturing we shall find that we are also developing the community-type school itself.

#### 1. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL IMPROVES THE QUALITY OF LIVING HERE AND NOW

If education is to serve our dynamic civilization it must itself become dynamic; it must organize anew around moral-civic-social purpose as its central goal. Our schools must find their fundamental purpose in the enduring life-needs of the whole person within the whole community, a community whose daily interrelationships extend throughout the region, nation, world. This means that the basic function of the modern school is to improve the quality of human living—child living, youth living, adult living—in the area served by the school. Because the school exists in the community the people there should be better people, physically and emotionally healthier,

more tolerant of folks different from themselves, more competent workers, parents, citizens. Intergroup relationships should also be improved as a direct result of the school's efforts—better labor relations, lessened racial and religious tensions.

The community school does not calmly assume, as does the traditional school of the past, that transmission of the Western world's cultural heritage, plus some civic and vocational training, is its chief concern. Neither does the community school make personality development through free expression of individual interests its major goal, as did many of the "child-centered" or "progressive" schools of the 1920's and 1930's. The real values of both organized knowledge and individual development are fully recognized by the community school, but primary emphasis always falls upon human-needs-to-be-met as the major purpose. Low standards of cultural and material living, mounting divorce and crime rates, the increasing extent of mental illness, crippling capital-labor struggles, dangerous inter-racial and inter-faith tensions, growing international fears and conflicts—all such demand that the modern school's basic and direct concern be that of educating better persons for better living in a better world. As this becomes our fundamental purpose we shall find appropriate channels of social action. That very process will do much more than we have dreamed to improve human relationships in the local community.

#### 2. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL USES THE COMMUNITY ITSELF AS A LABORATORY FOR LEARNING

Schooling cannot be realistic if it is confined to the four walls of the classroom, library, shop, or laboratory. If young people are to develop the understandings, concerns, and skills essential

<sup>1</sup> See Walter S. Monroe, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1075; also reports of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Madison, Wisconsin, 1948.



to the real improvement of human relationships, they must have every opportunity to learn about these relationships through extensive, first-hand, problem-solving experience. Books and visual materials are highly important, but alone they are simply not sufficient. That is why the community school builds experience bridges between school and community, two-way bridges on which students and adults alike study and serve the community by bringing the community into the school and by taking the school into the community. Through well-planned field trips, interviews, surveys, community service projects, work experiences, school camping, and extended field studies young people come to understand the human interrelationships operating within their community, their region, their nation, their world at large. Factories and farms, social agencies and museums, city council sessions, and union meetings—these along with books and pictures are the instructional materials of the community school.

It should be noted, too, that this community school is never content with *study about* the community, however realistic and vital such study may be. This school also organized many activities in which students and teachers together actually *participate in* community programs and, beyond that, constructively *contribute toward* practical solutions of community problems. Among such problems those centering in bad intergroup relations are often of primary importance. When such problems are analyzed and attacked, they become personalized to the student in ways not otherwise attainable. Tolerance and appreciation of cultural differences are not achieved merely by broadening intellectual horizons; they develop only as the emotional boundaries of the individual are extended through his own satisfying experiences.

Thus again human relationships are improved in the very process of organizing more effective education.

### 3. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL MAKES THE SCHOOL PLANT A COMMUNITY CENTER

Any community has made a poor business investment when it fails to use its school buildings and equipment during the evenings, on week-ends, and throughout the summer. The community school, by contrast, is open sixteen hours every weekday, and often on Sundays also, throughout the entire year. Its plant is a comprehensive community center serving the varied interests and needs of adults and of young people, as well as educating students who are "in school."

This modern high school or community college provides comfortable, homelike rooms and facilities where people can come together in neighborly fashion to study, work, and play. Open to all through appropriate arrangements are the library, shops, laboratories, gymnasium, auditorium, cafeteria, health center, and classrooms. Equally available are the playing fields, the picnic grove with its barbecue pit, the demonstration farm, and the school camp. For this school is also an adult center where people gather to hear a speaker or to plan an activity, where parents discuss children's problems, business men keep fit on the volley-ball court, farmers repair machinery, homemakers share new ideas, young couples square dance, factory workers make ceramics, citizens question candidates for public office. The community school is a *used* school, used by adults as well as by adolescents, used evenings and daytimes, used week-ends and week-days, used summers and winters. It is the school of all the people, designed and used by them all according to their needs.

Such a school is far more than a common "melting pot" for human rela-

tions; it is rather a social center of learning activity in which people of all ages, nationalities, religions, economic levels, and even races work together, play together, learn together, enjoy together. Human relationships? There is no better way than this to assure their improvement!

#### 4. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL ORGANIZES THE CURRICULUM AROUND THE FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS OF LIVING

All life is the curriculum of the community school. That curriculum comes to focus upon basic individual and group needs in relation to the culture's dominant values, processes, problems, and potentialities. This means, more specifically, that the required or "core" part of the modern school's program is organized directly around the persisting processes and related problems of human living here and now, today and tomorrow, such as utilizing the natural environment, adjusting to people, exchanging ideas, making a living, sharing in citizenship, maintaining health, improving family living, finding a life philosophy, and the like.

In planning the community school's curriculum we begin with the admonition of Alexander Pope: "The proper study of mankind is man!" So we center the curriculum "subjects" in the fundamental processes and problems of living yesterday, today and tomorrow; we seek out and study the stuff of life and not its trappings only; we leave behind our traditional patchwork procedure in curriculum making and begin anew with basic human needs and relationships as the very heart of the new curriculum.

Does such a curriculum "lower standards" of teaching and learning? Indeed not. On the contrary, it serves to raise the student's own standards of work precisely because it makes his learning experiences even more realis-

tic, vital, and meaningful. The high school or college student who finds a direct and definite tie-up between his studies and the demands of modern living discovers valid purpose in the school program; he sees more clearly his own emerging place among his fellows; he finds that school has something for him that is of real and genuine worth.

Throughout that process human relationships are obviously central, not peripheral; their improvement is consciously and directly sought, not minimized or ignored. When we make individual and group needs the heart of general education, we can be more confident that those needs will be met through intelligent and ethical group action in the community.

#### 5. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL INCLUDES LAY PEOPLE IN SCHOOL POLICY AND PROGRAM PLANNING

The first principle of successful public relations is simple: If you want someone to support your program, see to it that he shares with personal satisfaction in the development of that program's purposes, direction, and evaluation. That is one reason why the community school includes representative community lay people as well as students and parents in all of its program planning. A second reason, even more important in the long view, is that such school-community interaction results in school programs better than those designed solely by school people.

The community school is thus in a real sense a community-wide enterprise. The community as a whole, not merely the Board of Education and the P.T.A., feels that it has a stake in its school and shares responsibility for that school's success or failure. In the community school its broad policies and program are cooperatively discussed and even planned by civic, business, farm, labor and professional leaders; by representatives of government, wel-



fare, recreation, religion, education, and other local institutions; by all citizens who are concerned about education and the quality of living in their community.

This process, of course, in no sense eliminates or curtails the established board of education whose official powers remain unchanged. It merely brings to the board's constant attention the over-all community expectations and desires. Thus through widespread lay participation by people of many backgrounds, interests, and needs, the fundamental basis for improved human relationships in the community is further strengthened.

#### 6. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL LEADS IN COMMUNITY COORDINATION

Modern programs of education are built around the fundamental fact that the student is a whole being who is educated by his total experience—out of school, as well as in it. School and education are by no means synonymous, a point we school people often overlook. Every experience of his life educates the individual in some way, in some degree, in some respect. Broadly considered, movies and churches, homes and poolrooms, comic books and automobiles, television and schools are all educative agencies. Each one, through its particular impact upon the daily lives of many persons, shares in determining their values and standards, their ideas and viewpoints, their attitudes and outlooks.

Neither the school nor any other agency working alone can ever hope to solve such educational problems as those involved in reducing racial, religious, and international tensions, providing adequate recreational facilities and guided work experiences, improving standards of living and of taste. In many communities, however, startling success has been won when education was conceived as guided

experience for better living, when the whole community's responsibility for providing that experience was widely recognized, and when school and other community agencies coordinated their planning and their efforts accordingly.

The community school thus works closely with all other agencies seeking to improve human relationships in the community. More than that, it also accepts its responsibility to help bring those agencies together in close and continuous cooperation toward that goal. For the community school realizes that the local community where people live, and move, and have their being in face-to-face relationships is both matrix and fountainhead of democracy. It is in the local community that democratic human relations will first be built or will first be destroyed. Community coordination is the social cement for that building.

#### 7. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL PRACTICES AND PROMOTES DEMOCRACY IN ALL HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Democracy is more than a system of government. It is more than a pattern of ways for group living. Democracy is above all a dynamic social faith in the ability of enlightened people to manage their own affairs with justice and intelligence. Respect for the worth of the individual person, belief that the human mind can be trusted if it is free, confidence in the methods of cooperation and compromise, individual and group practice of these beliefs—such are the hallmarks of true democracy.

The community school stresses in many ways the real meaning of democracy: its values and ideals; its foundations, history, advances and defeats; its resources and its obstacles; its manifold complexities and its glorious promise. But the community school goes beyond *information* about democracy, and even beyond *attitudes* of loyalty to democracy; the community school provides also ever-

widening personal experience in positive community *action* for democracy. This school and its community are therefore living laboratories in which young Americans study democracy as both goal and process, and where they continuously learn the specific skills of effective democratic participation.

This they do as under guidance they gain experience in identifying community needs and problems, in analyzing issues clearly, in planning best probable solutions, in choosing leaders, organizing working committees for research and reports, evaluating proposals made, carrying out plans, appraising results. Frank discussion, respect for differences of opinion, imaginative planning, zealous effort, sober judgment, further discussion, planning, action—these are the basic elements of the democratic process, and these are the firsthand experiences in group activity shared by all students in the community school. Ever alert to violations of democracy's principles in school or community life, these young citizens build the democratic faith and process into their daily patterns of behavior, the only reservoir in which democracy can ever be contained. Thus they lay deep the foundations for a better school and community today, and, with them, a better world tomorrow. There is no surer basis than this for improving human relationships in both school and community life.

#### THINK BIG!

Seven characteristics of the community school . . . Seven fundamental ways of improving human relations through education . . . Seven venture-areas for professional leadership—these I have tried to sketch boldly. I make no apology for attempting to present what I believe to be the only *fundamental approach* to the complex problem of improving human relationships through education at the com-

munity level. I do not think that our schools and colleges can ever achieve significant improvement in human relations merely by adding academic courses in anthropology, by democratizing clubs and fraternities, by presenting "brotherhood" speakers and forums, or by any other such piecemeal, ephemeral tactic. Such procedures do have some value, and they certainly salve our professional consciences, but if we really want to improve the quality of human living in our communities we shall have to begin with the fundamentals, with the very philosophies, purposes and programs of our high schools and colleges. In Harold Rugg's fine phrase, we must now as never before "think big" and then act accordingly.

It is never enough to honor the past, to worship at the shrines of pioneers who have led us to the present. Our job now is to follow guiding stars into new lands, not to sit content by the ashes of dying campfires. To accept this challenge is to stand with the stalwart, facing the future with courage, devotion and skill. To fail would be the unthinkable betrayal of youth in this generation. That is why the conventional high school and college of yesterday, respected as they are, must now be transformed and rebuilt as community schools and colleges of today. Let us now venture toward that goal boldly, not timidly; with enthusiasm, not reluctance; as eager pioneers, not as dragging rear-rankers! For is there not profound yet simple wisdom in the words of Edwin Markham:

We are all blind until we see  
That in the human plan  
Nothing is worth the making  
If it does not make the man.  
Why build these cities glorious,  
If man unbuilt goes?  
In vain we build the world, unless  
The builder also grows.



## HIGHER EDUCATION IN A BALANCED CONCEPT OF NATIONAL SECURITY<sup>1</sup>

CHARLES E. ODEGAARD

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HIGHER EDUCATION in America in the last two decades has passed through such a series of crises that the phrase "crisis in education" has no pungency left. Yet the crisis undertone is still with us because of the persistence of major unsolved problems which constantly nag and fray the nerves of academic administrators and faculty. The most obvious of these problems is, of course, the financial one, though this difficulty is made worse by an incipient anti-intellectualism which affects finance as well as other things. Problems of this kind are domestic problems in that they would exist even if there had not been the threat from without which has been highlighted by the Korean war. Worry over the consequences of renewed mobilization added to the existing preoccupation with these problems caused, I suppose, the wave of near panic which swept over our academic leadership and led many educators in past months to the edge of a series of decisions which in my opinion would not have served the broader needs of national security.

Let us look at this question of national security and then ask, "How can higher education best serve the national interest and safety?"

It is my firm conviction that we are in such perilous straits that we can well afford to take a second, and third, and fourth look at our concept of national security, to be sure that we have fully defined the nature of the threat and the kind of problem which confronts us. It is the more important that we do this because some features may

seem to be obvious, yet intellectual recognition of them does not seem to result in appropriate changes in actions. An awareness of their meanings and of their consequences has not sunk in and become part of the considerations which guide us as a nation in planning and deciding upon our program for national security.

It is, therefore, impossible at present to overemphasize the fact that the position of the United States in the world has changed fundamentally in the last twenty years. The problem of national security for the United States has taken on vastly altered dimensions, has acquired many new facets, and involves new hazards potentially more disrupting and dangerous than any we have faced before. We Americans would do well to recognize fully the very large measure of national security which in earlier times was presented to us without effort on our part by the accidents of history, geography and scientific development. In the New World we have been the largest and most powerful national group, and we have had no reason to fear our immediate neighbors. The resources within our own frontiers have met our needs so adequately that we have not felt constricted, nor envied our neighbors' possessions. The only powers which could conceivably be regarded as of our magnitude were at least three thousand miles away, across oceans which, until very recently, served as effective ramparts. We should not underestimate the element of security which came from the historical accident that we shared the world with a number of great powers whose patterns of alignment often checkmated each

<sup>1</sup> Delivered before the Commission on Colleges and Universities at Chicago, March 29, 1951.

other, thus leaving us free to mind our own business unmolested in our own part of the world. Even when we felt sufficiently menaced to participate in armed conflict in World War I and World War II, we appeared on the field of battle with important allies providing substantial resources which were not of our own planning or making.

Thus nature and history earlier conspired in various ways to guard and protect us and to limit the facets of national security which needed to concern us.

How changed now is the natural and historic framework within which we live! It is unnecessary for me to recite the technological changes which have shrunk the globe, bringing men once worlds apart now next door to one another, and which at the same time have increased tremendously men's powers to destroy one another. Americans no longer laugh quite so violently at "globaloney"; and reference to "One World" more and more frequently evokes the reaction that, "indeed, there is only one world."

Just as important as the changes introduced by technology are the changes in the historic relationships among the powers. The declines of Great Britain, France, Italy and Germany leave the Soviet Union as *the* great power other than the United States, and impose upon the United States the necessity of continuing leadership in constructing whatever combinations can be brought together to resist further advances by the Russians. The additional accident that Soviet Russia is now a great Eurasian power means that the United States must be prepared to face her in Europe and in Asia, in front and in back with no part of the world safe from the conflict of interests.

To regard the Soviet Union merely as an expansionist, imperialistic na-

tion, which indeed it is, is to overlook, to our detriment, another aspect of its attack—its claim of leadership for the revolution which is on the move in many parts of the world. We must not underestimate this revolution, and we should not allow ourselves to be confused by the blaring propaganda of the Communists into thinking that this revolution is a Soviet or Communist monopoly. In both the material and spiritual aspects of this revolution, it is the United States, we Americans, who have lighted the way. The Russians have by no means as good a claim as we to leadership in this revolutionary enterprise.

In the material sphere, by observing the work of Americans, peoples on every corner of the globe have concluded that disease, hunger, and want are not man's necessary lot, that physical suffering can be alleviated through increased knowledge and control of the natural world such as that possessed and applied by Americans. The determination to follow the West, and America especially, in winning the way toward this knowledge which frees men from the natural ills which come from ignorance of nature is evident in the faces of the foreign students among us and from the speeches of their leaders in UNESCO and similar international bodies. Through vast public and private programs, Americans are lending them a helping hand in this revolutionary drive against the forces of unknown nature.

Let us not permit the fact that we have taken the lead in a material revolution cloud our vision and obscure the revolutionary impact of the United States on the spirit of man. Americans have striven to be not only well fed but also free. In the continuing search for the ideal of liberty the United States has been the exponent of a fluid democratic order, the leader



for a hundred and fifty years in what *Fortune Magazine* in its very interesting February issue has called "The Permanent Revolution." No nation is more responsible than the United States for spreading through the world the doctrine of the ideal equality of men, of personal liberty and of self-determination. One of the responsibilities we face is the hope we as a nation have helped to arouse in the breasts of many millions in the world that they too may share the benefits of a more democratic order. Even when in various countries this hope has been defeated by the establishment of totalitarian regimes, these very regimes recognize the continued yearnings of submerged peoples by erecting, out of the language of liberty and democracy, a pretentious verbal façade. The fraudulence of such a façade cannot forever escape those who are exposed to the autocratic facts. Meanwhile, the continued existence of a liberal and democratic regime in the United States is a guarantee for the continuance of their hope despite discouragement. For us to fail to see the position of leadership which others grant us in the spiritual as well as material realm and to fail to carry wisely the burdens this leadership imposes is to risk appearing in the eyes of many nations as the betrayer of the very ideals our nation has prophesied unto the world. Few people in the world's history have possessed such responsibilities and such opportunities. Ours is a heavy and a precious burden.

We Americans thus find ourselves in a shrunken world peopled by masses of men who are inspired by a revolutionary urge for both freedom and plenty and who, because of historic circumstances, are forced to choose for the fulfillment of their desires association with one or the other of two great powers, the United States or Soviet Rus-

sia. And for us, for the United States, whether we like it or not, there can be no security remote from the aspirations and resentments of other nations. In his State of the Union message on January 8, President Truman said very aptly, "The state of our Nation is in great part the state of our friends and allies throughout the world." Unfortunately, but unavoidably now, he could have added that the state of our Nation is in great part the state not only of our friends and allies throughout the world but also of our enemies. Our security is ultimately possible only in a more secure world.

National security has become a problem in human relations on a vast scale; it amounts at the minimum to finding a pattern of association with other peoples of the world which is mutually tolerable and which will not drive men to consider armed conflict as a means of achieving altered relations. It is ultimately a very difficult problem in politics and morals. To regard the problem of national security as anything short of a problem in world polity is to miss completely the character of the problem already before the American people and to invite even more risks than we inevitably have to run.

What I have just been saying to you does not constitute a new revelation. It has been said before—and I hope it will be said again. My observations of the past few months persuade me, however, that the consequences of what I have been saying have not sunk home; the full meaning of the changes is not really appreciated. Our heads sometimes may remind us that circumstances are now very different but our hearts are still attuned to the older order. The old attitudes, the established stereotypes, usually blind us to the unconsidered hazards that we incur.

The persistence of concepts and atti-

tudes appropriate for an earlier phase of American history but not yet adjusted to meet the very changed facts to which I have alluded is revealed if one listens closely to the undertones and overtones of the current discussions of military defense and of what I have come to think of as the rampart theory for national security.

To begin with military defense, permit me to dispose of one aspect immediately by saying that I accept as an obvious necessity the stepping up of our defense program and the maintenance of a considerable standing army. I wish to direct your attention, however, not to the justification of an enlarged military establishment, but to a confusion in many public utterances between military defense and national security which has been particularly evident since the shock of the Korean war struck the American people. The two are definitely related, but by no means the same thing. Defense is not a substitute for national security, nor is it the objective of national security. The minimum objective of national security is the achievement of a set of relationships among peoples which are tolerable to the United States and which are sufficiently acceptable to other nations to leave them with no disposition to try to impose their will upon the United States by any hostile acts. Obviously even this minimum objective is an ideal more difficult to approach at some times than at others, and especially so now. In the pursuit of this ideal of peaceful and mutually satisfactory relations, nations must engage in a continuous series of negotiations toward acceptable compromises of interest. The more embittered the negotiations, the more reason there is to build up a military defense establishment as a mode of persuasion which may have to be used when relations are at their

worst. Military defense is an instrument of national security whose size bears a fairly direct relationship to the degree of insecurity of the nation. It is, however, only one of a variety of means of persuasion for serving the political ends which comprise the best formulation we can reach of our positive program for national security. Military defense properly can be seen as only a part of a larger political whole. Even the conduct of war should be guided by clearly formulated political considerations calculated to lead to the set of relationships which best assure national security.

The facts of our recent history help to explain the tendency of Americans to think that International political problems may be solved essentially by military operations, and the habit of equating military defense with the political strategy required of a national security program. During extensive periods of peace the nation went its own way, feeling so safe as to give little thought to foreign political developments which in fact did affect its security. This relative indifference to the problem of national security on the part of most Americans still basking in the sunshine of nineteenth century isolation from the power conflicts of Europe, could be broken only by the sting of a series of sinkings or of a Pearl Harbor which aroused the nation into all-out mobilization and full-scale war. In the twentieth century we have experienced an alternation between peace when there was no serious problem of national security in the minds of most Americans, and two short periods of war when the existence of a national security problem was recognized but when it was largely subsumed under vast military efforts. The instant the fighting phase ended with the United States among the victors, the country swung back violently to its peacetime



mood. During the last war our thinking was so completely dominated by, so largely restricted to, the military defense segment of the problem of security, that our primary, clearly declared, goal was "unconditional surrender," a merely military objective which, however desirable, could not be called a political idea to guide us in the reconstruction of a continuing peaceful political association among peoples.

Unlike many European countries, the United States has not experienced previously long periods of tension short of war during which a sizable standing army has been maintained at considerable expense and personal inconvenience to the population, nor has it borne the periodic bloodletting of "colonial" wars. Past experience has bred in many Americans a deep-seated assumption that there is a time for peace and there is a time for war. This present strangely continuing conflict among nations when there has been neither peace nor war, this cold war marked by limited conflict in Korea which has led us into the peculiar state of affairs called partial mobilization, simply does not fit this assumption. As long as we hold to this assumption and yet confront a long period of high tension, our thinking is bound to remain confused, thus making trebly difficult the task of those who have special responsibility for formulating, determining, and executing a national policy for dealing with security.

American thinking about national security has not only the time aspect to which I have just referred but also a space aspect which emerges when one considers the rôle of the rampart in the popular concept of national security. As loyal and devoted Americans we will all share the sentiment behind that phrase of our national anthem, "O'er the ramparts we watched," but we

should beware of imposing upon our concept of national security a figure of speech which prevents us from reaching a comprehensive view of our present problem. We Americans have our own version of the Chinese wall which is a natural—that is, historical—consequence of past experience. Our forebears left an Old World to live in a New World. In coming to America they put behind them the concerns and the conflicts of the Old World and amid the ampleness of the resources of the New World they erected a new nation whose energies were turned to internal development, a nation which has been content to cultivate its own garden. Meanwhile, isolated from the Old World by thousands of miles of ocean, it came to assume that it would be protected by its watery wall and that most of the time it could ignore developments on the other side of the wall. Now that distances are shortened, many recognize that some kind of change is in order, but they have not necessarily undertaken a fundamental rethinking of the sources of American security. The old pattern, the rampart concept, continues in the minds of many, altered only by an effort to establish the wall not on the traditional line provided by the oceans but along some other line farther out. Much of the present so-called "Great Debate" on foreign policy seems to be an argument not over the validity of this spatial conception but over just what spaces should be included within the newly erected Chinese Wall, the new defense perimeter which will mark the revised outer limits of the New World. It is reasonable in terms of military defense to think of defense perimeters, but if we permit our thinking to be dominated by the wall concept we are bound to have an inadequate view of the problem of national security in the One World in which we now have to

live. To win the way toward security we must also be prepared to meet other kinds of weapons, ideological weapons, which can infiltrate through our walls; and if we are to win for the world the kind of a world we want to live in, we ourselves must develop ideological weapons which will breach any kind of Iron Curtain set up by the enemy. In short, we must recognize that we have a persistent political as well as a military problem on our hands. We have the difficult and dangerous job of trying to find a way to join the rest of the human race in living in the One World into which the New and the Old World have coalesced. This is not a job for which we are emotionally or intellectually well prepared, but it is a job from which there is no escape.

We cannot handle this job of national security well unless we unlearn some old habits and learn many new things about men in all parts of the world. Americans thus have on their hands an enormous problem in reeducation and new education.

This leads me finally to the relationship of higher education to national defense. I have been distressed in recent months by certain tendencies in higher education circles to overlook the magnitude and variety of ways in which higher education should serve the national safety and interest.

Following the established national bent, many educational leaders have recognized quickly the service higher education can render to military defense especially through teaching and research in the sciences and technology so closely related to the development and use of weapons of warfare. They have been far less vocal in declaring the services higher education can and should render to the ideological conflict and to an understanding of the political problems of national security.

It is reasonable and patriotic for

educational leaders to turn to our military leaders to ask how higher education can serve the programs of teaching and research required for the conduct of defense operations. It is also reasonable and patriotic for educational leaders, as conscientious citizens concerned with the nation's welfare, to declare the contribution which higher education can and should make to the political problems of national security. Even if these contributions should not be recognized in current mobilization policies, a condition by no means finally settled in view of the broader concepts held by some government officials, higher education is not entirely deprived of initiative by mobilization measures and should work harder than ever to provide the educational experience desperately needed by the American people for dealing with national security.

The democratic system provides a safety valve in that it permits citizens to speak up and to point out omissions in the official program of the government. If the Government in its programs and the people in their attitudes have not reckoned sufficiently with the changed status of the United States in the world and are still dominated by ideas which are now out of touch with the iron realities of the present, one might hope that leaders in higher education would recognize the responsible rôle the universities and colleges could play in helping the United States Government and people to analyze more critically their basic assumptions and to face with greater knowledge the altered facts of our national security problem.

There is general recognition of the importance to the nation, especially for military defense, of expert scientists and engineers as well as of widely distributed technical skills. Our educational leaders should be reminding the



country of its need for political skill as well as technological skill, for expert humanists and social scientists and for widely distributed civilian skill in recognizing and understanding the political and human problems involved in developing a program for national security in a secure world. This political knowledge and skill is directly related to our present safety and we should not postpone efforts to develop either the specialized experts required or the educational program needed by the general public. Higher education should make every effort to conduct the necessary programs now.

By what I have been saying here, I do not wish to appear to overlook important postwar efforts to deal with the political bases of world peace; for example, the United Nations and the work of its specialized agencies, the Marshall Plan, Technical Assistance, Point IV. If I have emphasized the tendency to confuse military defense with national security and to think of security in terms of a rampart or wall defending one world against another, it is because these tendencies, deeply buried and of long-standing, are still widely held and under the influence of the Korean war can easily become dominant. They can block efforts to see national security as a continuing problem which can be solved only through the advancement of sound

political ideas concerning adjustments among nations. They will not lose their force until most Americans recognize the changed frame within which they should view the problem of national security.

There is then in public as well as in private circles some recognition of the political as well as military aspects of national security. When men begin to see national security in these broader terms, there cannot fail to develop an appreciation for the wide variety of services based on many kinds of knowledge and skill which universities can and should render to the nation's security. With the problem of national security so conceived, the advancement of an educational program for living in a dangerous global world becomes a necessary and vital step if the safety of the United States is to be assured. Educational leaders should be in the forefront of this effort, using their energy and ingenuity to meet the nation's need through wise use of the institutions they administer. If they recognize the many ways in which the resources of their institutions can help to save the nation by building programs in the humanities and sciences which serve national security as well as military defense, the nation will be safer—and so will our educational institutions.

## SUMMARY OF PANEL DISCUSSION ON THE ROLE OF THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE IN A NATIONAL EMERGENCY<sup>1</sup>

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THE NATIONAL emergency concerning the liberal arts college is far more serious than a mere decline in enrollment. Indeed, it now appears as though fiscal problems of the colleges would be less serious and the retrenchment less drastic than was feared three or four months ago. Most colleges will survive.

A much more serious question relates to the crisis in American culture. Even though we successfully defend America from Communist aggression and even though the Liberal Arts College survives, will we succeed in preserving and fostering the highest values in our culture? There is much evidence of weakness in personal integrity, even in high places, and the American people seem confused in their values and fuzzy in their insights. How can we give to the oncoming generation a sound intellectual and spiritual preparation to meet the problems of our democracy?

To develop a strong education for democracy, more is required than increased emphasis upon the social sciences and humanities. A more basic question is concerned with the content of such course experiences and the way they are taught. The general education movement is doubtless a step in the right direction but this must be reinforced with teaching activities which

throw greater responsibility for judgment making on to the student. He must be given a maximum of practice in the dynamics of democratic group thinking.

The liberal arts college can make an important contribution through the development of programs in international understanding, student and faculty exchange with foreign countries, and majors in area studies. This would also imply a new approach to language study that would give the student greater facility in conversation and practical usage.

The liberal arts colleges should give increasing attention to the education of women, irrespective of the national emergency. Actually there probably will be a substantial number of men as well as women in the colleges for the foreseeable future. The new emphasis upon education for constructive family living, however, is sound and should be shared by men and women alike.

College life itself must reflect more adequately the democratic ideal. There must be much broader participation of students and faculty in the formulation of educational policy. Some colleges have placed students on virtually all the important college committees and the result seems to be highly salutary. In extra-curricular life, also, students should be encouraged to appraise the activities to determine whether there is discrimination or an equal opportunity for all. Indeed, colleges should consider carefully whether the whole college program, resting as it does on curricular competition for grades and extra-curricular competition for preferment is really conducive

<sup>1</sup> Mr. Cooper was chairman of the panel which discussed this topic at Chicago, March 29, 1951. The other members were C. E. Ficken, Dean, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio; James F. Findlay, President, Drury College, Springfield, Missouri; Clarence Lee Furrow, Professor of Biology, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois; and Algo D. Henderson, Professor of Higher Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.



to the spirit of cooperation and concern for the other fellow which is an essential factor in democratic education.

The liberal arts college occupies a vital and fateful position in American society and probably can make a

greater contribution than any other institution toward meeting our cultural crisis if it resolutely re-examines its program and directs its energies to that end.

## THE IMPACT OF MILITARY SERVICE ON EDUCATIONAL PLANNING<sup>1</sup>

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How SHALL American schools meet the demands of a new way of life? In the past we have viewed war and preparations for war as a "time out" period of two or three years, a bothersome interruption of peace time normalcy. Now General Omar Bradley and other Pentagon leaders envision a partial mobilization to last "10, 15 or 20 years."

After a honeymoon century of relative peace and tranquillity we find ourselves returning to a time in which men must remain constantly alert to protect their national security. How this tremendous change in our lives, our philosophy, will affect the schools and how the schools must meet the challenge of this extended mobilization for war was the theme of this panel discussion.

It is one thing to unfurl the flag, sell war or defense bonds, roll bandages, man USO centers, recruit women workers, convert campuses into camps, and pull out all the emotional and technological stops to win a war. It is quite another thing to recognize war as a Sword of Damocles which may dangle over us for several decades—or may fall some Saturday afternoon when we are washing the family car.

Educational planning must be long range to cope with a long range situation. It must see and appreciate the

natural resistance to such a militarily orientated program by a people who have a background of distrust of the military. It must try to understand the attitude of the high school sophomore or the college freshman who must draw all his life plans with the reservation of the big "If."

High schools must formulate their long-term plans on two fronts: the psychological and the practical. The high school junior or senior today is afraid. His parents are afraid. To remove this natural fear of the uncertain the schools must provide accurate information.

This information must indicate the value and need of education as a part of military planning and preparation. It should demonstrate that it is not only best for the student but best for the nation that he complete as much education as possible. Counseling must be of such a character and sincerity that it may turn panic and fear into a reasonable, intelligent approach to a human and patriotic problem.

On the practical side, the schools must be honest in re-evaluating their curricula. They must prepare for jobs in the armed forces, vocational or otherwise. They must remember that when many of these men are discharged from service they will require additional training or refresher training.

Boards of Education and superintendents of schools must contribute to building this new kind of morale designed to sustain a long period of waiting, of inactivity, yet of readiness for immediate action. Some of the practical steps are:

1. Schools should communicate to

<sup>1</sup> Mr. White was chairman of the panel which discussed this topic at Chicago, March 29, 1951. The other members were E. D. Duryea, Jr., Assistant to the President, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio; Coleman R. Griffith, Provost, University of Illinois, Urbana; Alex Jardine, Superintendent of Schools, Moline, Illinois; Russell Rupp, Principal, Shaker Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio; and J. Edgar Stonecipher, Director of Secondary Education, Des Moines, Iowa.



the community their aims and purposes and seek from the community its ideas and support. Boards of education in particular should promote *community advisory councils* which may serve as two way channels of cooperation.

2. School boards must guarantee the uninterrupted operation of the schools, one of our greatest defense assets. Adequate financing will become more of a problem as competition for manpower grows keener and as the citizen is asked for higher taxes to maintain the defense effort.

3. Continuous studies of staff salaries should be undertaken by Boards of Education. The teaching profession should be defined as of first importance in the defense program and draft boards should be called upon to recognize the essential nature of teaching.

4. Steps should be taken to set up building and equipment priorities adequate to maintain a strong educational program.

5. The superintendent of schools, occupying a key position in molding the character and nature of our schools, must above all be an example of the kind of leader which a democracy produces.

Colleges and universities too must face the possibility of a permanent adjustment to a new type of life. Although plans are indefinite it seems evident that whatever form of military service is adopted it will involve about two years of service for physically qualified young men.

This added period of service coupled with the urgent need for specialists and professional men in both the armed forces and industry will necessitate curriculum adjustment and this adjustment will probably take the form of acceleration.

Acceleration can come about in several ways—by reducing the amount of

college study, by increasing the number of days a year students attend college, or, in individual cases, of permitting better students to advance at their own pace.

Summer school is the key factor in acceleration. It has its disadvantages, especially for the smaller institution; however, summer school can provide necessary acceleration without curriculum change.

Requirements for entrance into professional study, particularly law and medicine, must be re-examined. Professional preparation already takes many years and the extra two years of service will multiply the problems for the individual and the country.

Decreased enrollment and income is another consequence of military service. Therefore, how to maintain faculties and physical plants is a problem. Of the two, physical plant is the less important. Collegiate architecture with its emphasis on solid stone and brick construction should wear well. Most institutions which have not been sleeping since V-J Day can get by on a minimum of maintenance.

But what to do about the faculty is a delicate and vexing problem. College authorities must consider a tradition of tenure and stable employment and related loyalty to teachers and staff. Also there is the anticipated need for teachers several years from now when, barring total war, enrollment will begin to build up. Collecting teachers from business and industry to rebuild a faculty has some of the same difficulties as gathering feathers strewn in a hurricane.

Programs for women students, military and government research projects for some staff members, and temporary outside employment for others may alleviate the situation.

ROTC programs will assume increased importance. In the next few

years military training on campus will undoubtedly become an integral part of higher education.

Vigorous counseling campaigns to convince draft-age men to begin college work as soon as possible may help boost enrollment and, more important, help provide a supply of college trained personnel for the future. A corollary to this is the need to keep not only embryo engineers and scientists in college but also the future businessmen and the social, economic and political leaders essential for national survival.

The student who has served in the

army, navy, or air force before entering college will be about two years older than the pre-Korean freshman. Thus colleges will be dealing with more mature students. It may well mean that student families will become a regular part of campus life.

These are a few of the considerations and problems which must be faced by our high schools, educational authorities, and colleges in the years to come. They must be taken into account in this indefinite period of hoping for the best and preparing for the worst.



## IMPROVING HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE RELATIONSHIPS<sup>1</sup>

PAUL R. PIERCE

*Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois*

HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE relationships appear to create a perennial problem for principals and teachers of the secondary schools. A time-honored aspect of this problem is, of course, the extent to which the college does or does not set the pattern for high-school instruction and administration. This aspect, in turn, includes a number of constituent items such as the effect of college policy on the high school program of studies, methods of selecting pupils for college entrance, the kinds of written evidence of college preparation required of pupils entering college, the economic selectivity of the colleges, and the presence or lack of contacts maintained between high school and college. Few gatherings of secondary and college people occur without discussion of some, or all, of these matters. The panel of the North Central Association on In-Service Education, on the evening of March 29, dealing with "Improving High School-College Relationships" proved no exception to this trend, virtually all the familiar facets of the problem being covered in a spirited, give-and-take session of high school and college personnel.

The meeting opened with a member of a state department of instruction expressing the belief that college limitations on the liberalizing of the high school program through entrance requirements exists almost solely in the

minds of high school principals. The speaker expressed doubt that many candidates for entrance to college are rejected where changes made in conventional curriculums to meet modern living needs are made clear to college authorities. This statement met with mixed comment on the part of college and high school participants.

Discussion next moved to the problem of the small high school in meeting sequence requirements of the colleges. In the opinion of high school representatives the requirement of certain sequences of subjects results in marked handicaps to the smaller high schools desiring to experiment with a view to increasing the variety, or changing the nature of their curricular offerings.

Agreement seemed general that the high school should be permitted a wide degree of latitude to shape and name its own courses with the purpose of better relating them to every-day living and that colleges should gear their programs, particularly in general-education areas, to student needs based on the newer types of secondary work.

When criticism was voiced about counseling procedures in colleges and the lack of coordination of these with high school efforts, a number of accounts of systematic counseling programs in colleges were related by college counselors. The college counselors were of the opinion that contacts between counselors in colleges and high schools should be improved to the point where college follow-up of high school counseling might become better known to secondary-school teachers, counselors, and principals.

The comments on college counseling paved the way to the topic discussed most spiritedly and at greatest length

<sup>1</sup> Mr. Pierce was chairman of the panel which discussed this topic at Chicago, March 29, 1951. The other members were the Rev. R. T. Grant, Principal, St. Ignatius High School, Chicago; Olive Greensfelder, Guidance Counselor, Horace Mann School, Gary, Indiana; Mrs. Virginia Lewis, Principal, Phillips High School, Chicago; Jane Palczynski, High School Art Supervisor, Chicago; and Charles W. Sanford, Associate Dean, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana.

during the evening. It was the problem of the amount and quality of information that should be provided by the high school concerning pupils desiring to enter college. Representatives of colleges urged the need for extensive and detailed information about each student. High school principals and counselors contended that unreasonable demands were often made on their time and energies by colleges in the form of lengthy blanks to be filled out by the high school regarding individual pupils. A solution offered by one college representative was that the colleges seek a much greater amount of information through tests and conferences with the individual students after their arrival at college. The feeling was expressed by several secondary-school principals that the colleges do not realize how much time and work are needed to fill out the blanks and how little use is actually made of much of

the information by instructors after the pupils enter college.

College representatives appeared unanimous in the view that colleges should be free to select students according to their own criteria. A question about what provisions might be made for the non-academic pupil's general education at the college level brought no response.

The marked changes that the war situation might cause both in college admissions and in the work pursued by pupils after entering college were the subject of brief comment.

The session closed with general agreement that keeping open the channels of communication between administrators and teachers of the high school and college levels regarding common problems is the most important factor in improving high school-college relationships.



# A STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE CURRICULUM ARTICULATION IN MINNESOTA

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ONE OF the significant trends in present day education is the growing tendency for high schools and colleges to recognize their common responsibility for developing better understanding and closer cooperation in the effort to solve mutual problems. In many states this movement has resulted in the formation of some type of joint organization designed to improve college-high school relationships. In Michigan the colleges and high schools have developed the Michigan Secondary School College Agreement under which all the able graduates of the cooperating high schools who are recommended by the school are admitted to college without regard to the pattern of their high school subjects. In Texas this movement has taken the form of "The Texas Study." Under this program the colleges in Texas furnish experts to advise and assist any cooperating high school which wishes to undertake any experiment, innovation, or study looking toward the improvement of its educational program.

In harmony with this general trend the Minnesota Association of Secondary School Principals and the Minnesota Association of Colleges in 1944 jointly organized the Committee on High School College Relationships. The membership of this committee consists of representatives of the State Department of Education, the high school principals, and the colleges of the state, chosen by the respective groups. The functions of the committee are to study and make recommendations upon any issue or problem referred to it and to initiate studies of any problem which it believes worthy of investigation. The study of curricu-

lum articulation which is being reported here was initiated and sponsored by this committee.

This investigation originated in discussions of the nature of the developing high school curriculum and its relation to the college offerings in the freshman year. So many of the issues were concerned with college practices the committee decided there was need for an exploratory study of the provisions in colleges for articulating their courses with the instruction in high school. The study was conducted by a subcommittee<sup>1</sup> which constructed a questionnaire designed to obtain information concerning the following four issues:

1. What provisions are made by the colleges for the guidance and adjustment of freshmen which contribute to curriculum articulation?
2. What provisions have the colleges made for developing courses appropriate to the differences among freshmen in ability and achievement?
3. What means do colleges use to articulate the content and instruction in freshman courses with those in high school?
4. What methods are colleges using to improve the articulation of freshman courses with those in high school?

<sup>1</sup> The persons composing this subcommittee were F. E. Heineman, Director Elementary and Secondary Schools, State Department of Education; E. B. Siebrecht, Dean of the College, Gustavus Adolphus College; Forrest E. Willey, Principal of the Senior High School, Albert Lea; Charles W. Boardman, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota.

As these issues suggest, the purpose of the questionnaire was to inquire concerning the nature and types of practices and procedures in college which might have an influence on curriculum articulation. No attempt was made to evaluate these practices.

The questionnaire was distributed to all the colleges in Minnesota, including the twelve junior colleges, in the spring of 1949. Responses were received from all institutions except three junior colleges, a total response of 93 percent. The representativeness of this sample seems unusually adequate. The validity and reliability of the responses have not been determined statistically but rest upon the fact that the questionnaires were filled out by college officers, frequently assisted by faculty committees, and that the analysis of the data indicates a high degree of internal consistency.

Since the procedures used by Colleges for curriculum guidance and placement of freshmen in appropriate courses furnish an obvious and important opportunity for curriculum articulation, the findings concerning these practices will be reported first. The attitude of the Minnesota college toward guidance is shown by the fact that thirty-five of the thirty-six institutions included in this study have developed some type of systematic organization for guidance. Fully trained counselors are employed by thirty-one (86 percent) of the colleges, nineteen of which have one or more full time counselors and twelve have part time counselors. Thirty-two (89 percent) colleges maintain an organization of the faculty for the guidance of freshmen. The composition of the faculty-adviser organization varies greatly, the most common practice being to select the advisers for freshmen without regard to level of the courses taught by the instructor. About one-third of the col-

leges use the chairmen of departments or administrative officers as a part of the faculty-adviser organization, and in less than one-fifth of the colleges the instructors in freshman courses are the advisers of the freshmen. This latter method of providing faculty advisers for freshmen seems to be the best, for the freshman instructors are in a position to be most familiar with the freshmen and their problems. The fact that the common practice is for the faculty advisers to counsel freshmen both at registration and during the school year strengthens this influence.

The colleges' recognition that information about the freshmen is necessary for curriculum guidance is shown by the wide range in the types of psychological, scholastic achievement, and special kinds of data systematically collected from all entering freshmen. Every college collected one or more measures of scholastic aptitude, 86 percent using the American Council on Education Psychological Test and 44 percent also obtaining the scores on the intelligence tests used in high school. Somewhat more than half of the colleges (52.8 percent) obtained ratings of personality traits from the high school and about one-third (30.6 percent) obtained some measure of vocational interest or aptitude. Other psychological data collected by small proportions of colleges included measures of special activities, emotional adjustment, social adjustment and study-habit inventories.

The universal measure of scholastic achievement was rank in the high school graduating class but standardized tests were used extensively. Over half of the colleges (55.6 percent) used a standardized English composition test and exactly one-third a general reading test. Other measures used by one-fourth or less of the colleges included standard tests in mathematics,



science, social studies, and foreign language and such general tests as the National Freshman Placement Tests, the College Entrance Board Examinations, and the General Education Development Tests.

Statements by the high school or the parents concerning special abilities or disabilities comprise the third type of data concerning entering freshmen collected by Minnesota colleges. Over three-fifths of the colleges (61.1 per cent) obtain statements concerning major fields of interest or ability and 50 percent inquire concerning participation in extracurricular activities, especially concerning special achievement in activities. Slightly over two-fifths (41.7 percent) obtain statements concerning vocational interest or ability and nearly three-eighths ask for descriptions of work experience. Information concerning disabilities is obtained by small proportions of colleges. About three-eighths (36.1 percent) request statements concerning physical handicaps which may require special curriculum or classroom adjustment, 28 percent ask for statements concerning major fields of scholastic weakness, and 22 percent concerning specific learning problems or weaknesses.

From this brief description it seems evident that Minnesota colleges collect a considerable amount of data which would be useful in curriculum guidance. The counselors uniformly have access to these data before consultation with a student and 72 percent of the colleges report provisions for furnishing the data to faculty advisers prior to any consultation either at registration or during the school year. They also state that the faculty advisers have opportunity to consult the original data in the files. The data actually furnished the faculty advisers vary according to the types systematically required of all freshmen by the indi-

vidual colleges. The types of data furnished advisers by 50 percent or more of the colleges are scholastic aptitude test scores, high school scholastic rank or average, a copy of the high school transcript of courses and marks, achievement test scores, and measures of vocational interests. Those least commonly furnished are measures of personality traits and of special weaknesses or disabilities. A definite effort is made to have available data in the hands of the advisers prior to registration and about three-fifths of the colleges report that the majority of the data are in the hands of advisers by that time.

Appropriate use of such information by the advisers depends in part on the provisions for assigning freshmen to the advisers. Twenty-four colleges (66.6 percent) assign the freshmen by some type of official administrative action. The large majority of this group notify the freshmen of their assignments and make an appointment for consultation prior to their arrival on the campus. Some of these institutions invite the freshmen to come to the campus for consultation and registration during the summer, though this is, of course, a voluntary action by the student. The remainder of this group of colleges notify the freshmen about the identity of their advisers and their appointments for consultation after their arrival on the campus. In the other twelve colleges freshmen either choose their advisers or acquire them by chance during registration. The average load of freshman advisers ranges from three to forty students but the mean load of sixteen students suggests that the colleges recognize that too heavy a load is a barrier to the development of a good guidance program.

It seems apparent that Minnesota colleges are developing a guidance or-

ganization and are collecting and making data available to advisers which may contribute to curriculum articulation. Since no guidance program can be effective unless there are definite provisions in the college curriculum for placement and adjustment of students, this investigation attempted to discover what provisions were made in freshman courses which would permit the placement of students upon the basis of achievement or ability. The findings show that 75 percent of the colleges made provision for the placement of freshmen in mathematics, natural science, foreign languages, and business education upon the basis of the courses taken in high school. In the business and foreign language fields students who offered a larger number of units of credit were admitted to advanced courses. In the natural sciences students who had taken high school courses in science were placed in different sections from those who had not. The most unsatisfactory provisions for placement were made in mathematics. Sixteen colleges reported that placement depended upon the high school courses taken but six colleges required the student to take a specific course without credit.

Provision for placement upon the basis of the achievement tests taken at entrance was made by two-thirds of the colleges. The fact that twenty-three colleges made some provision for inferior achievers and only eighteen for superior achievers seems significant. Nineteen colleges provided sub-freshman classes without credit for inferior achievers but three offered a fundamentals course with credit. Four colleges offered no credit for preparatory courses in mathematics for inferior achievers. Individual colleges offered special or fundamentals courses with credit for poor achievers in foreign language, natural science, and social

studies. These provisions for the poor achiever smack more of standards for admission to courses than of methods of adjusting courses to achievement. Adjustments for superior achievers were of a different order. They were found in English, natural science, and mathematics and consisted of three types: exemption from further work in the field, admission to advanced courses, or placement in a special section.

Only seven colleges attempted to make any adjustments upon the basis of measures of intellectual ability. Five colleges reported homogeneous grouping in English and two in natural science. One college advised students in the lowest quartile in intelligence not to take mathematics and one reported a special course in natural science for students in the lowest quartile. Three colleges stated that they had developed courses designed to serve various levels of intellectual ability but failed to state the fields.

These findings concerning the provisions in Minnesota colleges for the placement of freshmen in courses adjusted to the level of their achievement or ability are both encouraging and disappointing. The fact that considerable proportions of the colleges are making some provisions of this type is encouraging. Too often, however, the provisions made seem to consist of traditional practices such as requiring the student to take preparatory courses without credit or placing him in advanced courses. The greatest encouragement lies in the small group of colleges which are attempting to break with traditional attitudes and concepts and to develop new courses which are adjusted to different levels of achievement.

Curriculum articulation may also be accomplished by encouraging instructors to adjust course content and in-



structional procedures to those found in the high school. Provisions for adjusting the content of courses were extremely limited. Twelve colleges (33.3 percent) have a systematic program for analyzing the standard achievement tests administered to freshmen at entrance and for furnishing the data to freshmen instructors on a basis for organizing the content of freshman courses. In thirteen colleges (36.1 percent), many of them in the group just mentioned, the freshman instructors administered pre-tests to their classes as a basis for organizing course content. Both of these procedures are valuable methods for aiding in articulation of high school and college courses. Other means of adjusting course content were noticeable by their absence. Three colleges had a systematic program for conferences between high school teachers and freshman instructors but no college had any program for other procedures for developing better course articulation, such as visits by freshman instructors to the high schools, stimulating the instructors to study state syllabi or the courses of typical high schools and to conduct research on high school courses of study.

In contrast to these findings, the majority of the colleges had made provisions to aid freshmen in making the transition from high school to college methods of instruction. Twenty colleges (55.5 percent) had a systematic program for instructing all freshmen how to take lecture notes. The most common techniques were to offer this instruction in specially organized or in certain selected classes but a few colleges offered it in all freshman courses. Nineteen colleges (52.8 percent) regularly provided the freshmen with information concerning the outcomes desired in the courses. Usually this was done through oral statements by the

instructor and class discussion but in a very few colleges the only means was by mimeographed statements given to the students. Instruction in how to take college examinations was offered in sixteen institutions (44.4 percent). Equal numbers of colleges offered this instruction in a special class required of all freshmen or in the regular freshman courses, but a very few colleges used both of these methods.

The common type of procedure was to inform freshmen concerning the nature of the examinations and to instruct them how to prepare for the examinations. Eight colleges provided actual practice in taking different types of examinations.

The importance of the library in college work is shown by the fact that thirty-three (91.6 percent) of the thirty-six colleges have a regular program for instructing the freshmen in the use of the library. The major areas of instruction included the location of rooms, how to use catalogs and indices, and how to obtain books. The majority of the colleges use two or more methods of instructing freshmen in these areas. The most common technique, used in 70 percent of the colleges, is to provide lectures by the librarian but nearly half use directed practice and lectures by instructors in freshman courses and a small proportion use bulletins which are given to the students. Lectures in freshman courses upon methods of taking notes on library readings are provided in two-thirds of the colleges but only about one-fourth offer any opportunity for directed practice in this technique.

While some of the methods used by Minnesota colleges for instructing freshmen how to take lecture notes, how to prepare for and take examinations, and how to use the library may be open to criticism, the fact is that the majority of these colleges are attempting to

develop a program for aiding freshmen to make the transition from high school to college methods of instruction. Undoubtedly any procedure which aids in accomplishing this end does contribute to curriculum articulation.

The final aspect of this study was an attempt to discover whether colleges have any planned or systematic program by which they attempt to improve articulation between their curricula and those in high school. One means of doing this would be to inform the high schools concerning the achievement of their graduates upon the standard tests administered at entrance and upon other measures of achievement. Nine colleges (25 percent) claimed to have such a systematic program but when the data were analyzed the results were disappointing. Seven colleges informed the high schools concerning the marks earned in freshman courses. While this may have some values for articulation they are strictly limited. Only two colleges returned any information upon standard achievement tests, one reporting the scores on the cooperative English Test and one the scores on the General Education Development Tests. No information which might be valuable for curriculum articulation was returned to the high schools by any college upon the pre-tests administered in freshman classes nor upon any other achievement test.

The evidence also showed that no college had developed a systematic program for obtaining advice or help from the high schools in improving curriculum articulation. Fifteen colleges (41.6 percent) did report that during the past three years they had attempted to obtain the aid of the high schools upon problems in the following areas related to curriculum articulation: the clarification of the college bulletin so it may be more easily understood; the reaction of the

high schools to the orientation program for entering freshmen; the nature and types of information concerning their graduates the high schools would like to have furnished by the college; present trends in curriculum development in the high school and their implications for articulation with the college courses; and finally, problems related to the adjustment of high school graduates to the college environment.

Although the colleges had no systematic program for improving curriculum articulation, they agreed almost unanimously that such a program for conferences between college and high school representatives for the purpose of discussing common problems would be of the highest value. Nearly 50 percent of the colleges wrote comments making specific suggestions concerning such a program of conferences.

#### SUMMARY

The outcomes of this study may be summarized as follows: Minnesota colleges have developed guidance programs which should contribute to the placement of freshmen in courses appropriate to their abilities and capacities. While the majority of colleges have also made some curriculum provisions designed to provide courses for students of different levels of achievement or ability, too often these provisions consist of traditional adjustments rather than an attempt to develop new courses specifically designed to meet differences in background, achievement, or ability. Little attempt has been made to articulate the content of freshman courses with high school offerings except in a small group of colleges which have developed programs for making achievement test data available to instructors as a basis for organizing freshman courses. On the other hand, the evidence does indicate that Minnesota colleges are carry-



ing on systematic programs for aiding freshmen to make the transition from high school to college methods of teaching. Although about 40 percent of the colleges during the last three years have made some planned attempt to obtain the advice and assistance of the high schools on a number of problems related to curriculum articulation, there is little evidence that any college has developed a systematic program for improving curriculum articulation with

the high school. Such findings as these are important to the high schools and colleges of Minnesota and open the way to further effort to improve articulation. Undoubtedly, however, the most significant outcome of this project is not the results of this study but the fact that the cooperative effort of the high schools and colleges of Minnesota in carrying this study to completion contributes to better understanding and better relationships between them.

## FURTHER ACTIVITIES OF THE CONTEST COMMITTEE OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

L. B. FISHER, *Chairman*<sup>1</sup>  
*University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois*

### RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO MUSIC, SPEECH, AND ART

*Music and Speech.* Contained in this report are copies of recommendations for complete programs in secondary schools for both music and speech. The recommendations with respect to music were prepared and authorized by the Music Educators National Conference of which Professor Marguerite V. Hood, University of Michigan, is President and Mr. C. V. Buttleman of Chicago is the Executive Secretary. These recommendations are officially submitted by the Music Educators National Conference. Contributions to these recommendations came from many persons in the Conference and were compiled and written by officials of the Conference.

The recommendations with respect to the complete program of speech

education in secondary schools is presented officially by the Speech Association of America. The committee which was appointed by the Executive Council of the Speech Association of America to prepare the recommendations with respect to speech included the following persons: James H. McBurney, Chairman of the committee, Dean of the School of Speech, Northwestern University, Evanston; Bower Aly, Editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and Professor of Speech, University of Missouri, Columbia; Orville Hitchcock, Executive Secretary Elect of the Speech Association of America, and Professor of Speech, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; Loren D. Reid, Executive Secretary, Speech Association of America, and Professor of Speech, University of Missouri, Columbia; and Karl R. Wallace, Head of the Department of Speech, University of Illinois, Urbana.

<sup>1</sup> EDITOR'S NOTE: The Contest Committee made comprehensive reports to the Commission on Secondary Schools in Chicago, Thursday, March 29, 1951, in the areas of music, speech, and non-school-related organizations. No report was filed on art contests and recommendations only were made on athletics. The Commission adopted these reports "in principle" since there was no time to study each one in detail. The Committee, however, was authorized to give further attention to athletics and to give constructive publicity among member schools to its work on contests in all the fields which it had investigated.

An important development later took place when the Executive Committee of the Association at its meeting on March 30, 1951, adopted the following recommendation: "The Commission on Colleges and Universities recommends that the Executive Committee appoint a committee, representing the member high schools and higher institutions, to formulate recommendations regarding the policies of the North Central Association with regard to intercollegiate athletics. This committee would also confer with officials of the athletic conference operating in North Central Association terri-

tory, discussing with those officials the deep concern of the Association with the present situation in intercollegiate athletics and the conference rules governing the conduct of intercollegiate athletics."

On June 30 the Executive Committee appointed the following individuals as members of the "Committee on Interscholastic and Intercollegiate Athletics": J. B. Edmonson (chairman), University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; Eugene Youngert, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois; Lowell B. Fisher, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois; Glen O. Ream, Senior High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico.

This action means that the Contest Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools will be absorbed in the larger committee and that an over-all inquiry into intercollegiate athletics in all member institutions, both secondary and higher, will come under the scrutiny of this newly created body.

[For earlier information concerning the work of the Contest Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools, the Reader should see pages 263-79 of the *QUARTERLY* for January, 1951.]



Consultants to the committee were Hale Aarnes, Chairman, Department of Radio Education, Stephens College; Henry J. Ewbank, Professor of Speech, University of Wisconsin; Grant Fairbanks, Editor, *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, Professor of Speech, University of Illinois; Barnard Hewitt, Editor, *American Educational Theatre Journal*, Professor of Speech and Theatre, University of Illinois; and Wesley Swanson, Professor of Speech and Theatre, University of Illinois.

The Chairman of the Contest Committee worked closely with both groups during the preparation of these recommendations. Excellent cooperation and a sincere desire to improve music and speech education were evidenced at all times by both the representatives of the Music Educators National Conference and the Speech Association of America.

*Recommendations.* It is recommended that:

(1) The recommendations prepared by the Music Educators National Conference and the Speech Association of America constitute the recommendations of the North Central Association with respect to suggested programs of music and speech education.

(2) That the Commission on Secondary Schools request a sufficient appropriation to publish in brochure form these recommendations for nationwide distribution at a nominal cost.

(3) That State Committees of the Association make a determined effort to encourage implementation for improving programs of music and speech in each of the member schools of the various states of the Association.

(4) That the Chairman of each State Committee contact in each state both the Director of Extension of the State University and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, or the Commis-

sioner of Education, encouraging each to assist in the implementation of the proposed programs in music and speech.

(5) That the Contest Committee in general, and its Chairman in particular, do all possible to encourage school administrators and school boards to give serious consideration to the curricular needs of boys and girls with respect to music and speech.

(6) That each State Chairman contact the executive officer of the school board association in his state encouraging a program of informing lay people of the needs for education in music and speech.

(7) That the contest element be handled in each member school in accordance with the general principles in the recommendations presented by the music and speech educators.

*Art.* The Chairman of the Contest Committee was not able during the past year to make the appropriate contacts with the art educators that he was able to make with the music and speech educators. This inability was due solely to a matter of time, and is not to be construed as a failure of art educators to cooperate. The Chairman has now established contacts with the office of the National Art Educators Association so that further work and study can be accomplished. It is, therefore, recommended that the Contest Committee in general, and the Chairman in particular, work with the officials of the National Art Educators Association during the coming year in an effort to formulate recommendations with respect to art education in the secondary schools, such as has been done with respect to music and speech during the past year.

The recommendations for complete programs in secondary schools for both Music and Speech are as follows:

# I. RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO *Music*<sup>1</sup>

## I. The Child's Bill of Rights in Music

### *Prelude*

Since our preceding biennial meeting the General Assembly of the United Nations has adopted its memorable Bill of Rights. This maintains that "the recognition of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice, and peace in the world."

Article XXVI asserts "Everyone has the right to education which shall be directed to the full development of human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms."

Article XXVII adds "Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits."

It is evident that these and other sections of the preamble and thirty articles of the Declaration of Human Rights have important implications for educators throughout the world. The Music Educators National Conference submits some amplifications of certain aspects of the Bill of Rights as applied to the field of music education.

### I

Every child has the right to full and free opportunity to explore and develop his capacities in the field of music in such ways as may bring him happiness and a sense of well-being; stimulate his imagination and stir his creative activities; and make him so responsive that he will cherish and seek to renew the fine feelings induced by music.

<sup>1</sup> As prepared and submitted to the Contest Committee by the Music Educators National Conference.

### II

As his right, every child shall have the opportunity to experience music with other people so that his own enjoyment shall be heightened and he shall be led into greater appreciation of the feelings and aspirations of others.

### III

As his right, every child shall have the opportunity to make music through being guided and instructed in singing, in playing at least one instrument both alone and with others, and, so far as his powers and interests permit, in composing music.

### IV

As his right, every child shall have opportunity to grow in musical appreciation, knowledge, and skill, through instruction equal to that given in any other subject in all the free public educational programs that may be offered to children and youths.

### V

As his right, every child shall be given the opportunity to have his interest and power in music explored and developed to the end that unusual talent may be utilized for the enrichment of the individual and society.

### VI

Every child has the right to such teaching as will sensitize, refine, elevate, and enlarge not only his appreciation of music, but also his whole affective nature, to the end that the high part such developed feeling may play in raising the stature of mankind may be revealed to him.

### *Postlude*

A philosophy of the arts is mainly concerned with a set of values different from the material ones that rightly have a large place in a philosophy of general education. Although current



general educational concepts are often strongly materialistic, they are frequently given authority in moral and aesthetic fields in which they are inapplicable. Since moral, aesthetic, and material interests co-exist in life and are not mutually exclusive, those who would promote the arts, including music, should become acquainted with and should advocate a philosophy which affirms that *moral and aesthetic elements are equally with physical elements part of the whole.*

### *Reality*

The music teacher is, to a large extent, responsible for the implementation of the opportunities listed in our six articles. While the child must do his part in making use of them, his approach is greatly influenced by the teacher's attainments and attitudes. If the teacher is deeply and sensitively musical, follows high ideals in the practice of music, and views music as a ministration, the child is much more inclined to apply himself to the study of music, and thus come into his desired heritage. More and more the teacher must present musical material which, by its depth, intensity, and elevation, and its revelation of a buoyant spirit, shall produce significant affective reactions in our young people.

## II. Music as a Part of General Education (Music and the Common Learnings)

### *A. General Beliefs*

As indicated in the preceding statement of beliefs, all students should have the opportunity for continuing experiences with music of a general nature, planned to meet their interests and needs. The so-called general music activities of singing, playing, and listening, together with many associated activities (rhythmic, creative, reading, etc.) are considered by most educators

to be fundamental essentials in music for all children in the elementary schools. It is most important that *all* students have the opportunity available to continue these activities in keeping with their changing and developing interests and abilities in the junior and senior high school grades.

The opportunity to play an instrument, for example, is all too frequently reserved only for those secondary school students with previous instrumental experience or with the financial ability to pay for private instruction. Many young people reach the age of readiness (physically, mentally or in terms of interest) to begin to play a string, wind, percussion or keyboard instrument at the secondary school level. Such activity can be a source of tremendous individual and group satisfaction and understanding and a force of great value in the life of the adolescent, even though he be a beginner, in developing stability and self-confidence, and giving him a worthy leisure-time activity which at the same time acts as a means of awakening cultural awareness.

### *B. Special Needs and Problems*

#### *1. Acquiring use of the singing voice*

Most students can sing by the time they reach the secondary school level, but some will be found still unable to use their singing voices because of inadequate elementary school experiences or of a late development or readiness to learn to sing. Every secondary school should provide opportunity for the kind of remedial experiences such students need, and provide them in ways that will not embarrass the individual, but will rather allow for a development of a reasonable degree of self-confidence. Many talented students do not "find" their singing voices until after they reach junior or senior high school.

## 2. *The changing voice*

The fact that voices are changing during this period adds to the importance of consistent fundamental singing activity for all students. A skillful, sympathetic teacher who carries on singing activities with them regularly while the voices are changing can develop in these students an intelligent interest in their voices and a confidence in their growing vocal skill. A school schedule which makes singing experiences intermittent only, with long periods when there is no opportunity for activity, is cheating its students of valuable guidance during a crucial period of growth.

The adolescent, particularly the boy, sometimes undergoes a mental and physical reaction to vocal and choral music which tends to destroy his interest in singing. Unless the student is kept in contact with vocal music during this trying period through the variety of activities afforded by general music classes, he is likely to terminate his contact with music at this point. The general music classes of the seventh and eighth grades, consisting of singing, playing simple instruments, etc. are recommended as a means of guiding students through this period when their judgment and attitude toward singing are, because of the physical and mental changes occurring not too reliable.

## 3. *Motor control of bodily movement*

The rapid physical growth of adolescents, and the fact that this growth is frequently uneven throughout the body (some parts, such as hands and feet, growing to adult size before the rest of the body does), causes a problem of muscular control in many students. Simple rhythmic activities can do much to speed up development of a smooth control of body movement during this so-called "awkward age." Such activi-

ties can include any type of marching experience (such as is offered by band, drum corps, and similar groups), folk games, dance activities, and the playing of instruments (band, orchestra and keyboard instruments and also the various informal melody, harmony, and rhythm instruments).

## 4. *Psychological values*

Spontaneous, interested, well-directed musical activity is psychologically valuable to most adolescents. It can act as a stabilizing influence and as a force in the development of powers of attention and concentration. Also, a rapid development of emotional responses characterizes this period of a growing child's life. Many musical activities for the general student give opportunity for self-expression which acts as a satisfying emotional outlet, and assists in developing sensitivity of feeling and understanding of other individuals and groups. Such activities include singing and playing an instrument (individually and in groups), listening to music, making rhythmic response to music by bodily movement or by playing rhythm instrument accompaniments. The singing of folk, patriotic and religious songs of our own people and other nations is an activity of particular importance at this time.

## *C. Kinds of Experience in Music for the General Student*

All schools should develop the music curriculum with a view to serving every student. The practice of limiting the musical offerings to those requiring special interest, skill and accomplishment is not in accord with the basic principles of American education, which demand that the school serve the needs of *all* children. Musical experience for the general student should be planned to meet the needs of:



1. The student who may have had no previous musical background and needs at his own level of maturity of interest the most elementary of music activities from the point of view of skill required, to give him an immediate enjoyment of participation in music activities, to introduce him to possible participation in more advanced activities, and to develop in him an appreciation of the musical performances he hears.

2. The student with some interest and background in music, who does not participate in the traditional, established musical performing groups such as band, orchestra or chorus, but who may become an active amateur in music (singing, playing, listening, etc.) in the community if given some school experience through informal home room and assembly singing, the general music classes, music club activities, etc.

3. The student whose chief interest in music is derived through listening to live, recorded and broadcast music. Many of these consumers of music are not at all interested in producing music. It is important that through music appreciation classes they be given an opportunity to develop an intelligent understanding of music and the ability to enjoy the literature of great music which has become a permanent part of our cultural heritage.

*Integration of music and other subjects.* In addition to classes and activities that are specifically musical in nature, the general student will profit greatly by the regular use of music in connection with other school subjects. Musical activities and experiences lend themselves easily and naturally to integration with many general education subject areas and cores. A school music program should include such integrative experiences so that the students begin to use music effectively and

naturally in their daily living, outside of the special music class periods. Musical experiences of many different kinds have proved to be of value in such secondary school courses as those of literature, social studies, languages, physics, art, journalism, physical education and dance, dramatics, and home living. Successful planning of such integration requires the assistance of a teacher trained in music, sometimes only as an adviser, and sometimes as a participating teacher. This type of activity should not take the place of regularly scheduled musical activities, because music is an art of great interest and value in itself and requires for most uses certain skills which need time and experience to mature.

#### D. *Recommendations for the Music Curriculum for the General Student*

To provide the musical experiences outlined above for *all* students in the secondary schools, it is recommended that the instructional program in every school include specific *general music* and *music appreciation* course offerings open to every student regardless of previous experience. These courses will be in addition to the courses and performing groups designed for the students with special interest and previous training in music. School programs should also include specific attention to music experiences for everyone by means of the use of music in the teaching of other subjects, and by participation in music clubs and in regularly scheduled assembly music programs with assembly singing. (See outline for "The Instructional Program" below.)

### III. Special Education in Music

#### A. *General Beliefs*

The public school should provide additional opportunities for partici-

pation in musical activities beyond those planned for all students as a part of general education. A music curriculum designed with the sincere purpose of serving *all* students will recognize that *both the general students and those with special interest in music* must be served by curriculum offerings. These offerings should be designed to meet the special interests and aptitudes of students who desire continuing and broadening musical experiences.

The instruction given in the music courses and activities provided for this special interest group can be much more systematic and intensive than is possible in the general courses. The main purposes of such activities and courses are:

1. To give students the opportunity for growth in the practice of an art which provides activities whose interest and value continue beyond school hours during youth and in later life. The fact that most of these musical activities are usable by individuals alone, and also in small groups or large groups playing or singing together, gives them great potential value in achieving desirable use of leisure time. This objective has increased significance in the light of the current military service requirements, and the needs of servicemen.

2. To give opportunity for students to make the acquaintance of great music through studying about it, participating in its performance, and thus coming into direct touch with the cultural values inherent in it.

3. To provide opportunity for skillful performance of music by students who will, through such performances and the intensive work required to prepare for them, be benefited in the growth of such characteristics as: ability to cooperate in group activity, self-confidence, ability to adjust to strict discipline, powers of concentra-

tion, stability of disposition, ability to follow orders, etc. Such performances are also of great value to a school student body and to a community through the entertainment and cultural growth they provide.

4. To give special music students individually and in groups the opportunity for musical growth and experience aside from the areas of performance, through acquiring a good fundamental knowledge of elementary music theory, and an understanding of the use of music as a language for possible use in self-expression.

#### *B. Basis for Organizing the Special Music Curriculum*

Special music activities and classes should be designed to meet the needs of several groups of students:

1. Those whose enjoyment of previous participation in school music activities has made them desire further and more intensified participation in the secondary school. Such students make up the *selective performing organizations*, and although most of them are satisfied to be musical amateurs, they set for themselves and for the groups to which they belong, a high standard of excellence in serious musical performance, and they enjoy the intensive work required to attain such excellence.

2. Those students whose enjoyment of previous participation in school music activities has made them desire to continue this participation but whose chief interest is in music as a pleasant, entertaining group activity, rather than a serious art. Such students make up the *non-selective groups* which are open to all who wish to participate, and which usually require less intensive work of their members than do the selective groups.

3. Those who as secondary school students are just beginning to discover



and develop a keen interest in music, and who therefore crave a more intensive activity program than is found in the general music classes. These students are found in the *beginning classes* of all kinds (*instrumental classes, and beginning bands, orchestras, and choruses, etc.*), but their interest frequently moves them ahead to qualify for participation with more advanced groups.

4. Those few students who will plan to continue in music as a profession. A good music curriculum which is well-balanced to meet the needs of the general students as well as the one whose aim is amateur performance only, will meet most needs of these pre-professional students with an opportunity to elect courses in *music appreciation* and *history* and *theory*, and continually to increase their performing skill through special study and through participation in school performing groups, large and small, such students will be acquiring the solid musical foundation necessary for later specialization. At the same time they will acquire important social understandings through association with the other students in the performing groups. They will also, because of their special skills, make a substantial contribution to the activities of any school music group to which they belong.

### C. *Special Music Activities within the School Curriculum*

#### 1. *Course Offerings*

Course offerings in music in the secondary school should include regularly scheduled vocal and instrumental groups, large and small; study groups like wind, string and keyboard instrumental classes, beginning choral groups, and beginning bands and orchestras; classes in music theory, appreciation and history; applied music

(school credit for private lessons under a definite school plan. See under "The Instructional Program" below). In planning and scheduling these course offerings, the importance of small vocal and instrumental groups should not be overlooked. Provision for such groups in the music program takes care of many problems of individual differences which would otherwise cause continuing difficulty in performing groups. These small groups are also very important in the carryover of school music activities into out-of-school and adult life.

#### 2. *Credit for Music in the Secondary School*

It is customary to offer school credit for music courses beginning with Grade 9. The definite basis for giving such credits depends upon the situation in each individual school. Most schools offer regular academic course credit for classroom courses like music theory, music appreciation and history, and general music. Some schools consider performing groups like band, orchestra and choir as laboratory subjects, and give half the usual academic credit for participation in them. Some schools, however, have organized these performing group courses to include specific study of music theory and history and regularly scheduled outside individual practice, and then offer full academic credit for the work of the group. Credit for small ensembles must depend entirely on the local situation and the amount of time devoted to them, as well as the progress made by the group. Many schools recognize that most students participate in small ensembles because of a love for the activity, and not for credit, and allow schedule time for them, but no credit. Many schools (and some states) have definitely worked out plans for allowing school credit for private lessons,

which usually make specific arrangements for school records of the work done for credit, and also for the regular semester examination or jury which the student must take to receive the credit for work done with an outside teacher. Some schools give such credits only when the student concerned is a member of one of the school's musical organizations.

An increasing number of schools recognize music subjects as a major or a minor credit sequence in the high school. Very few students in any school care to take advantage of such a plan, but it is only reasonable to allow those students the same opportunity to do all possible study and receive credit for it, in a field which interests them to the extent of being a major or minor sequence. This allows them the same privilege as is extended to students in any other field of study in the high school, and without such a plan many students lose the opportunity for valuable pre-professional training because they must build up credit sequences in other fields. The fact that the entrance requirements of so many colleges and universities are being changed to meet these recent developments in high school credit requirements is evidence of the fact that the major or minor credit sequence in the high school is considered valuable for the student who will go on to advanced study.

#### D. *Extra-Curricular Music Activities (Contests, Festivals, Special Programs)*

##### 1. *Status of Extra-Curricular Activities in Music*

Music is a subject which lends itself easily to a variety of extra-curricular uses. Part of the value of the in-school music activities is their ability to function by continuing on into after-school or out-of-school activities. These extra-curricular activities are some-

times the outcome of special clubs such as: Opera Club; Conducting Club; Record Collectors Club; Madrigal Ensemble; etc. At other times, extra-curricular music activities are a direct outcome or carryover from in-school activities. In this class fall operettas, band performances at athletic contests, music contests and festivals, and similar other activities. All of these provide possible valuable outcomes; at the same time they also present difficult problems to be solved. There are three main points to be kept in mind in evaluating any activity or course:

a. The most important factor to be considered in evaluating anything in connection with a school is its relation to the students. How valuable is it for the students concerned? Are the over-all results good enough to justify the amount of time required? The student and his needs must come first for consideration. If he is being exploited to satisfy the desires of community, school, parents or teacher, the activity is indefensible. If however, he is gaining desirable experience which he needs at this time whether this experience be musical or in human relations, and if the activity is not harming him, certainly it is both acceptable and desirable.

b. None of these extra-curricular activities in music can be substituted for a good balanced music program in the school. They can be important and extremely valuable additions to the program, supplementing it, and greatly enriching the lives of the students who participate. But no marching band or competition-festival program, or operetta, or any other such activity can fairly or feasibly be allowed to become the whole music program. Each has value only as a part of a program when used with due consideration for the needs of all the students, and not as a means of exploiting or short-changing



them. Thus the situation where the music teacher can get support or attention to music in the school only by putting on a big show, or preparing groups which win contests, is a reflection on the vision and integrity of the school administrator and level of understanding of the community. And, in the same way, the situation where the music teacher is interested only in producing top contest groups or flashy dramatic shows, without giving attention to a good program of music education throughout the school, reflects on the professional status of the teacher as a music educator. Sufficient teacher time has to be provided to meet the needs of music for both the general student and the one with special interest in music. And the music teacher and the administrator must both have the needs of the students uppermost in mind in working out a stimulating, balanced curriculum.

c. It is not possible to make one blanket statement or decision on the specific values of any of these activities with relation to all schools in general. The needs of each school are unique and should be met in the way best to serve the students in that school. All of these activities—operetta, contest, band performance, etc.—depend for their ultimate values chiefly on the way they are used by individual teachers. An activity which brings forth undesirable results in one community may be, in other places, the spearhead for valuable growth in students to the delight of community, administration, teacher and student. Each school needs to evaluate its curriculum, both in-school and out-of-school, and decide for itself what is best for its students.

2. *Public Performances* (Material taken from new information leaflet prepared for the Music Education Research Council of the MENC by Irwin Spector, Assistant Professor, Illinois

State Normal University.)

a. *Value of public performance*

- (1) Presents vital goal toward which students may strive.
- (2) Provides opportunity for outstanding programming and achievement.
- (3) Promotes continued interest in music in school and in the community.
- (4) Spreads enthusiasm of students and instructor to entire school, the parents, and to the community.
- (5) Affords means for gaining public understanding of school music programs.
- (6) Provides excellent opportunities for raising standards of musical taste of students and of the public.
- (7) Students experience opportunities for creative and artistic expression as well as social broadening.

b. *Types of performances*

- (1) Concerts or presentations similar to those presented by professional organizations.
- (2) Interdepartment collaboration.
- (3) Programs wherein music supports a particular idea even though it is incidental.
- (4) Presentation of different musical groups of varying stages of training and ability.
- (5) Presentation of original music.
- (6) Music adapted to standard or original plays.
- (7) Pageants or festivals involving several schools or even the entire community.
- (8) Cooperation with civic events and organizations. Such participation should be more fundamental than a means of publicity or for providing mere entertainment. If little or no edu-

cational benefits can result from such collaboration the opportunity for participation should be tactfully declined by the musical director or by the school authorities.

In all public performance the emphasis should be on the truly artistic elements. Let the show elements be incidental. The idea that the public prefers the simple, obvious, or trite music is a fallacy.

#### IV. Instructional Program in Music in the Secondary Schools

##### A. Areas of Instruction

###### *Junior High School*

1. *General Music Course* open to all students regardless of previous musical experience. A course offering a variety of musical activities such as playing, singing, listening, reading music, creative activity, etc.

2. *Vocal Music.* Boys' and Girls' Glee Clubs, Chorus or Choir, small vocal ensembles, assembly singing for all students.

3. *Instrumental Music.* Orchestra, Band, small instrumental ensembles, class instrumental instruction, wind, string and keyboard, for beginners and more advanced students, applied music study for credit available in Grade 9.

4. *Special Electives in Music.* In some junior high schools there is need for special elective classes in Music Appreciation and in Music Theory, especially in Grade 9.

###### *Senior High School*

1. *Vocal Music.* Boys' and Girls' Glee Clubs, Chorus, Choir, small vocal ensembles, voice classes, applied music credit for private lessons. Some of the large choral groups selective and others open for election by any interested student, unless the school is too small to allow for more than one group.

2. *General Music.* Open to all students, regardless of previous musical experience. A course similar to that described above under Junior High School, but adjusted in its content to Senior High School interests and needs.

3. *Instrumental Music.* Orchestra, Band, small ensembles, class instrumental instruction, wind, string, percussion and keyboard for beginning and advanced students, Dance Band. Orchestra and Band should be divided into beginning and advanced sections, or first and second groups, if the enrollment warrants such division.

4. *Elective Course Offerings.* Music Theory, Music Appreciation, Music History. Many high schools find it feasible to offer several years of instruction in each of these fields.

##### *For All Students in the Junior and Senior High School*

1. *Assembly Programs.* Music programs with singing by all the students, the appearance of school musical organizations, and the appearance of outside artists.

2. *Recitals and Concerts* by student performers.

3. *Educational Concerts.*

4. *Music Clubs.* Clubs devoted to those interested in certain phases of music study or related areas: Record Collectors' Club; Conducting Club; Folk Dance Club; Recorder Club; etc.

##### B. Teacher Load

Many schools are demanding too much of their music teachers. This is perhaps more true of the smaller schools than of the larger units. It is recommended that a study of the teaching load of the music specialist be made with the view to adding more staff where necessary. Standards of instruction and the welfare of the teachers engaged in the profession are jeopardized when the administration



fails to comprehend fully the physical strain involved in conducting musical activities. A balanced music program to serve all the children in the school will require that adequate teaching hours be available to do the work.

### C. *Scheduling*

The tendency to reduce the number of periods in the school day has made it impossible for many principals to properly schedule music courses. Music can contribute sufficiently to the total school program to justify a serious consideration of the problems involved in scheduling it. Such a study must give due consideration to the scheduling needs of the performing instrumental and vocal organizations as well as to their training units.

## II. RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO *Speech*

### A PROGRAM OF SPEECH EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

In presenting this statement concerning speech education, the Speech Association of America is aware that in part the statement applies also to written communication. Taken as a whole, however, the statement stands for the special values that speech education can make to the personal and social development of youth in a democratic society whose vocational, professional, civic, and cultural values are realized in everyday communication through speaking and listening.

#### I. *Point of View*

A speech teacher of ancient Rome once observed that God had distinguished man from all other creatures by no other means so powerfully as by the gift of speech. A modern novelist has declared that all life comes back to the question of our speech, the means by which we communicate with one

another. If the observations of the ancient teacher and the modern novelist are sound—and most thoughtful persons agree that they are—then education for the effective use of speech is paramount for the individual and for his culture.

Speech education is determined by fundamental facts representing some of the contributions made by students of psychology, linguistics, sociology, political science, and communication, as well as by speech scientists. The basic facts are few; taken together they support a philosophy of speech education.

#### The Basic Facts of Speech

1. *Speech is learned, not inherited:* Speech becomes so much second nature that men sometimes regard it as a physical inheritance like eyes or hands or feet. But every member of the human race has to acquire his speech; he brings none of it with him. A significant part of this tremendous feat of learning is accomplished by most people before the age of six, i.e., before school age.

2. *Speech is complicated:* Considering the hindrances to the creation and communication of a single thought, human beings may marvel that they understand each other even as well as they do. One reason for the complexity of speech is that no single *organ* of speech exists. The eye sees, the ear hears. What organ speaks? Not the tongue, for all the poet's metaphor. Not the lungs alone, nor the larynx, nor the brain, though all are involved. Speech is a secondary function of many organs, each of which has a more pressing vital function: the throat is used in speaking, but its chief function is swallowing; the lungs supply the column of air for speaking, but only as an incident to maintaining the breath of life; the ear has an important function in

<sup>1</sup> As prepared and submitted to the Contest Committee by the Speech Association of America.

speech, but its primary obligation is to hear. In a sense, the whole human body is involved in every act of speech.

Language behavior is virtually equivalent to thinking behavior. Although language may be of different kinds—such as the language of mathematics and of music—the language of words is universal. Accordingly, whatever improves the use of language improves the individual's ability to think. Education is always interested in the development of thinking. One way to develop thinking is to develop speech. Through planned experience in speaking comes growth in thought and speech.

3. *The act of speech is unified:* Whereas the human being has certain senses for inward impression—such as sight, taste, touch, smell, and hearing—he has, in an overwhelming number of life situations, the single means of speech for outward expression.

The human being is most human when using language. Unlike other animals, man can use speech to point to objects and events not immediately present to him and to others; he can talk and reason about his past and plan for his future, and for such purposes he has developed a grammar, a rhetoric, and a logic. Education is always deeply concerned with humanity and with personal adjustments peculiar and proper to the human being. In seeking to develop effective use of speech, education is meeting man on his most human level, for speech and thought are so interdependent that no one is likely ever to make a clear distinction between them. In the human and social sense the mind is made of language; and for nearly everyone the major language is the speech learned in childhood.

4. *The requirements of speech vary in differing cultures:* In the simple culture of rural America in 1850, personal

anomalies of speech created relatively simple problems. The Illinois farmer in 1850, for example, probably did not require ten per cent as much speaking as most citizens of Chicago do today. If the farmer chanced to have an impediment in his speech, personal consequences might or might not have been unfortunate; but the social and vocational results were not highly significant. The geometric progression of complexities in modern life has magnified the importance of ready speech for every active member of our society and at the same time has placed heavy stresses upon the channels of communication. In a complex urban culture, the man who cannot speak well is often handicapped just as surely as the man who cannot hear well: often they are the same person. In a great city, a man who is ill in his speech may be just as unemployable as one who is deficient in vision.

Realizing all that is involved in the creation and communication of thought in our increasingly complex culture, responsible Americans should consider means of helping those persons whose physical basis for speech is inadequate but perhaps remediable. In an era when every man counts, effectual measures should be taken to redeem the speech handicapped.

#### Speech and the Citizen

What of the great body of people whose speech is acceptable? What do they require of speech, and what is required of them?

The stresses of the times and the need for easy communication are present for those of normal speech just as they are for the handicapped. The grouping of people in cities, the developments in the technology of communication, the impact of the moving picture, radio, and television on American culture, and the necessities of modern



production merely suggest the ways in which speech problems have multiplied. The problems of communication have not merely increased in number: they have developed to unprecedented intensity. With the coming of radio and television language has entered into a new age: speech has been given a fourth dimension whose potential can hardly be estimated. Apparently more people must talk and more must listen today than ever before, not only because there are more people but also because they have more problems—and because they live closer together. In the union hall, in the board meeting, and in the council chamber; in consultation, in conference, and in negotiation; from the pulpit, from the platform, and from the radio and the television set talking goes on to one listener or a million. Arguments are developed, appeals are made, propaganda is insinuated into the minds and spirits of the people. How do they respond?

Communication makes possible group living; and speech, as the chief means of communication, is the universal instrument of social cooperation and coordination. From the most ordinary conversation to the most complex political discussion, speech is used more often and more widely than any other means of communication. The world of today is for most persons a speaking and listening world. It is a world, furthermore, that the great majority of youth must learn to live in without the privilege of higher education. Youth, then, must have mouths that speak and ears that hear. "Without speech I can exist," said the sage, "but I cannot live."

Speech appropriate to group living is characteristic of the individual who gets along well with others. Personality traits and attitudes seem to be most often revealed in speech, and significant development in speech is usually

accompanied by significant gains in personality. Successful communication depends upon the understanding, respect, tolerance, and sympathy which speaker and hearer have for each other. Accordingly, certain attitudes should become intimately associated with speech and speaking situations. They are the attitudes of helpfulness, cooperation, tolerance, inquiry, concession, admission, self-reliance, honesty, and conviction. Although some of these may appear more sharply in one speaking experience than in another, they are the attitudinal bases of informal speech and group discussion, of dramatics and the oral interpretation of literature, and of public speaking and debate. In speaking, as in any other learning experiences, such attitudes should be rewarded and reenforced, and antisocial attitudes, such as belligerence and egotism, should go unrewarded.

In a free society, the welfare of all the citizens depends ultimately upon public opinion. If they do not have the ability to form wise judgments on the basis of information and arguments presented to them, then the wise and the unwise will suffer together the consequences of their mutual failure to present and to comprehend wise courses of action. That men should be able rightly to conceive policies, effectively to communicate them, and readily to understand them is a matter of first importance.

If we are not to be deluded by the fraud that government by decree is safer than government by discussion and debate, then all our people must be made increasingly able to participate effectively in public affairs—in the union, in the church, in the corporation, in the legislative assembly, and in the Congress. A citizenry able to differentiate between sound and fallacious reasoning, to distinguish be-

tween acceptable and shoddy evidence, to tell an honest speaker from a verbal swindler—this is the minimum essential for the survival of a free and responsible society in a chaotic world.

### Speech and the Leader

In *The American Commonwealth* Lord Bryce set forth the ideal that every citizen in a free country should be able to formulate his opinions on public policies and to defend those opinions with arguments. Bryce readily admitted that in practice perhaps not more than one voter in twenty is so ideally equipped. The nineteen lack the ability or the information to deal with the issues of the day; or they have become so engrossed with private affairs that they have no time for public business. But if the twentieth man has the time, the energy, and the ability to state the right propositions in the right way, the nineteen may be able to reach the right conclusions.

What is the usefulness of speech to the twentieth man, the leader in the enterprises of labor, industry, and government? The leader in any group not dependent immediately on force must employ the twin arts of discourse: discussion and debate. Discussion, chiefly a method of inquiry, is a way groups of people learn: it is a means of discovering alternatives. Debate, chiefly a method of advocacy, is a way groups of people develop alternatives. As experience demonstrates, when the arts of discourse are corrupted, when the channels of communication are clogged, men resort to violence as the final arbiter. Doubtless that is one reason why the founders of the American Republic set so many safeguards around the right to speak and the correlative right to listen. For the right to make inquiry (i.e., to discuss) and the right to advocate one's convictions (i.e., to debate) are firmly fixed in the

Constitution of the United States. The right to be heard by a jury is even older than the Constitution. At the heart of true citizenship in any organization—social, economic, or political—lies the right and the obligation to utter in the most effective possible way what one believes to be true.

The twentieth man, the leader, must perforce accept the obligation with special care and purpose. Upon his ability to explain, to clarify, and to advocate his judgments rests the welfare of his group and, in the long run, of his nation and his culture.

### Speech and the Schools

The functions of the arts of speech in a democracy have been set forth because their state is critical. A generation ago John Dewey declared the essential need of the day to be "the improvement of the methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion." The situation has not changed for the better. Systematic instruction in speech is one of the oldest and most significant of the tasks entrusted by the American people to the schools. Indeed the relation between the schools and instruction in discussion, debate, and persuasion is much older even than America. The earliest schools known to the Occident dealt with a problem essentially similar to the one current today: How can we make boys and girls more useful when they talk? The consequences of the neglect of speech education can be observed in the lack of social intelligence. Unless we heed Dewey's injunction to improve the methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion, we may find ourselves lacking the basis for a technological or any other culture. We have long lived without atomic science. Whether we can live with it in the dignity of freedom depends in large measure on our ability to solve our prob-



lems through the intelligent use of the spoken word.

Discussion and debate serve democracy, and in turn democracy preserves and fosters personal integrity that springs from freedom of speech. The interaction of discussion and freedom of speech preserves personal integrity—personal conviction. In our society any speaker is free to declare, in effect, "I am saying what I believe in the way that I think best for the good of all who hear me." In a tyrannical society, he *must* say, in effect, "I am saying what I am told to say in a way approved by the Dictator for his benefit." The difference between these two statements marks the difference between personal integrity and the lack of it. To encourage and preserve discussion and debate as we know them is to preserve freedom of speech. To preserve freedom of speech is to preserve integrity in all social relationships in which communication makes a difference.

## II. *Speech and General Education in the Schools*

In keeping with the values and goals of speech education expressed above, school programs should give all pupils opportunities to improve their speech through guided experience. The essential speech activities are part of a common learnings program. They are the universal means through which basic information is acquired and social adjustments made both in and beyond the school. Through them personal relationships are facilitated or hindered; through them individuals and groups seek understanding, decision, and action.

### A. Tests of Speech and Hearing

1. Speaking: Since difficulties in voice and articulation impede communication and are sometimes asso-

ciated with social maladjustment, every pupil should know whether his voice and articulation are adequate. If his speech does not meet minimum standards, he is entitled to counsel and aid.

Although judgments and informal tests can be made by any teacher of speech, diagnosis and training in remedial speech should be undertaken by or under the guidance of a qualified speech correctionist. In cooperation with medical and counseling services available in the school and community, the correctionist can undertake adequate diagnosis and prescribe proper therapy. The correctionist can often help pupils individually, and can sometimes aid other teachers to facilitate speech improvement in group situations. An increasing number of states have standards of certification for speech correction teachers. In addition, the American Speech and Hearing Association certifies the clinical competence of its members and carries on studies designed to improve the standards and education of speech clinicians.

2. Hearing: Since the ear guides the act of speaking, every student should know whether his hearing is normal. One who has a hearing loss damaging to the perception of his speech and that of others is entitled to appropriate help. Such diagnosis and help should require the cooperative services of medical and speech specialists. Simple hearing tests, such as large-scale screening tests required in many states, can locate pupils who need the attention and treatment of specialists. In many schools hearing is tested during the regular physical examination.

### B. Speech and Learning Situations

1. General Observations: Speech is learned, not instinctive behavior. Acquiring speech through trial-and-error

and imitative methods in early life, most young people upon entrance to high school can communicate well enough to "get along" with their fellows. But if their speech is to develop appreciably beyond the minimum level, the guidance of good teachers is essential.

In the general curriculum the method of teaching may consist chiefly of planned experiences in which the practical speaking is emphasized and the knowledge of principles is subordinated, though not omitted.

Speaking experiences should be planned (a) to meet the needs of the pupil who may never have the opportunity to take a formal course in speech, and (b) to meet the social, political, and economic needs of the individual in a democratic society.

Experiences may be developed effectively within a core curriculum; invariably they should be adapted to the plan of general education in the school. Workable and progressive patterns of speaking experiences have proved valuable in general courses devoted to written and oral communication, general science, social science and the language arts. Successful integration of speaking and listening with such courses requires the knowledge of a person trained in speech, who may function as a counselor and planner and often as participating teacher.

2. Kinds of Experience in Speech: The kinds of experiences recommended can best be suggested by reference to their immediate ends: (a) to make inquiry and to disclose information; (b) to ascertain the truth and advocate it; (c) to understand literature and interpret it; (d) to know the drama and participate in it; (e) to evaluate the dynamic powers of radio, television, and the motion picture, and to respond intelligently to them.

For each of the speaking experiences

a correlative listening experience exists which is not less important than speaking. The student who would obtain and disclose information must be willing to hear it. Anyone who would advocate should also listen. Whoever would interpret literature should be able to enjoy its presentation by others. Those who would really know the drama must be able to observe as well as act. Meaningful radio and television programs require the cooperation of the listener.

(a) To make inquiry and disclose information: Experiences in making inquiry and disclosing information can be found in interviews; introductions; reports; explanations of basic concepts (such as occur in economics, civics, science, literature, history); explanation of processes (how something is done or made, how a simple mechanism works, how a society or club operates, how bodily processes function, etc.); explanation of the causes of a social movement or phenomenon; conferences; biographic sketches; reading aloud of informative materials; job and vocational requirements.

Such endeavors in the school program encourage the gathering of information from persons, reading, and observation; habits of clear organization and presentation; building of a functional vocabulary; the experience of direct, two-way communication with an audience of one's peers; the satisfaction of making useful contributions to others; listening with accuracy.

(b) To ascertain the truth and advocate it: Experience in discussion can be designed (1) to examine problems that spring out of general education materials and processes, and (2) to produce, express, explain, and support opinions, to develop a feeling for the attitudes necessary to making admissions, concessions, and compromises in order to reach group agreement, and



to provide experience as participants and as leaders. Such discussion should help to build the attitudes essential for effective participation in democratic processes, to afford training in how to take part in and to conduct meetings, to follow the path of give-and-take talk, to arrive at the issues of a problem and to clarify them, to evaluate on-the-spot evidence and facts, and to develop respect for straight argument and logical reasoning.

Experiences in advocacy can be found in the organization and management of clubs, in the practice of parliamentary law, in the discussion of controversial issues, in the debating of live propositions, and in the extemporaneous, persuasive speech prompted by the *problems* growing out of general education courses and out of a speaker's *conviction* that he has a position to recommend to his hearers for acceptance.

Persuasive speaking holds certain personal and social values not directly associated with informative speaking: sense of *public responsibility* for one's views on controversial questions; personal integrity and confidence that springs from conviction and the successful presentation of the grounds of conviction.

(c) To understand literature and interpret it: Experiences in understanding literature and interpreting it can be provided only through good literature whose full meaning requires oral expression. The reading of prose and poetry aloud encourages full mental and emotional responsiveness to written symbols. Close and accurate observation of printed matter enlarges the spoken vocabulary and illustrates the satisfaction derived from communication which gives pleasure to others.

(d) To know the drama and interpret it: Experiences can consist of original dramatizations of significant

events dealt with in the general curriculum and of productions of standard plays which in whole or in part are adapted to the content and activities of the general curriculum. Creating and playing roles develops insight into human emotional and aesthetic values; expressiveness of voice and body is enhanced; the foundation is laid for the appreciation of the cultural contributions of the theater and dramatic literature.

(e) To evaluate the dynamic powers of radio, television, and the motion picture, and to respond intelligently to them: Experiences in radio listening and in evaluating of program content can be provided in almost any classroom; many classrooms can provide experiences in television. As a motivating force in a speech program and as a means of providing further insight into radio and television, programs can be developed; if other facilities are not available, a room-to-room or public address system broadcast can be used. Although few schools can afford to make motion pictures, many schools use educational films. These, and the professional entertainment film, can be employed to study the film, as an art and a means of mass communication, with attention to production methods and social effects.

### III. *Speech in Specialized Education*

Beyond the learnings in speech essential to all students, schools should provide additional opportunities to challenge those who may have special interests and aptitudes, to train those who may take leadership roles, and to serve those who realize that speech is essential to their vocational and professional activities.

In specialized education instruction in speech becomes more systematic and intensive than is possible in general

education. Teaching, therefore, centers on two main purposes: (a) understanding of the principles, causes, and conditions which promote success in speaking effectively, and (b) guided experience marked by direct application of principles to practice. These purposes are achieved both by courses in speech in the school curriculum and through high level experience in school activities outside the classroom.

#### A. In the School Curriculum

The diversity of educational activities and the resources of schools determine the kind and extent of instruction. Nevertheless, the essentials of a sound minimum program may be suggested in the following central topics:

1. Fundamentals: How speech sounds are made, care and improvement of the voice, the essentials of distinct utterance and acceptable pronunciation, poise, and self-management, personality and speech.

2. Reading Aloud: The application of principles to a variety of materials and activities, including choral and group reading.

3. Discussion: Its values, aims, and chief forms, including procedure adapted to the conference and committee.

4. Debate: Its aims, methods, and practices, including its relation to discussion, to parliamentary law, and to the functioning of our society.

5. Public Speaking: Its aims, methods, and chief forms.

6. Drama and Theater: The qualities of a good play, the conditions and requirements for producing the play, the social and personal values of play participation, acting and role-playing, representative plays, and the creation of one's own play.

7. Radio, Television, and Motion Picture: The qualities of an effective broadcast, the differences between radio and television, the demands of

radio and television on the speaker and listener, and the functioning of radio and television in our culture; the purposes, chief production methods and techniques, and the social effects of the motion picture.

The requirements of the radio medium can be met by the adaptation of the materials and experience included within each topic.

In practice the seven topics appear in high school courses in various combinations:

- (a) A two-semester course, frequently called Fundamentals of Speech or Oral Communication, during the Junior year and dealing with all six topics.

- (b) A two-semester course devoted to fundamentals, discussion, debate and public speaking, and a semester course devoted to reading aloud and drama and theater.

- (c) A semester course centering on fundamentals and reading aloud, a semester course on discussion, debate and public speaking, and a semester course on drama and theater.

- (d) A semester course dealing with discussion, debate and public speaking, with some attention to fundamentals and reading aloud.

- (e) A semester course dealing with the personal and social implications of radio, television, and the moving picture.

The number and character of the special courses must *extend* and *complement* the experiences in speech provided in the general education offerings of the school.

The educational record of the teacher who develops and participates in the speech program should disclose specialized college or university training in the seven topics above. If speech is the major teaching subject the teacher may have emphasized (1) oral reading, theatre and drama, or (2) public speak-



ing, discussion and debate, or (3) radio and television; nevertheless, the teacher will have had supporting courses in all areas of speech. In semester hours the record will show 20-26. If speech is the second teaching subject, the teacher will have had at least one course in each area of speech; in terms of semester hours the teacher's record will show 16-20.

*Equipment and Supplies.* For the proper testing of speech and hearing an audiometer is essential; a machine for recording speech is standard equipment. The speech correction teacher requires tests and materials for examination and retraining procedures.

Play production is most readily carried on with modern theatre facilities, but where a stage and auditorium are not available much can be accomplished with adequate space and seating arrangements and with minimum materials for scene construction and lighting. Adequate time and space for rehearsal and for scene construction are the great essentials.

The classroom ordinarily affords satisfactory surroundings for most experiences in discussion and speechmaking. Arranging seats to permit face-to-face talk facilitates discussion.

An adequate debate program is absolutely dependent on ready access to a good library or to the latest books or articles on the proposition debated.

A good program in radio, television, and the mass media requires a motion picture projector, a tape recorder, a microphone, a radio, and (when practical) a TV receiver. Much can be done with radio speaking if a public address system is available and if acoustics are reasonably good. The large school may desire a radio studio to permit preparation for occasional broadcast programs. If programs are to be transcribed for later presentation, recording equipment of good quality should be available.

## B. In Extra-curricular Activities

The chief educational goal of extra-class and inter-scholastic activities in speech must be clearly comprehended. Such activities give the pupil of special aptitude an opportunity for more intensive and extended experience than is possible either in formal courses or in the general education program. In the small school they may provide the only training in speech.

Principals and teachers therefore should treat the inter-scholastic speech activities as having educational values identical with those that govern classroom instruction in speech. Accordingly, these recommendations are offered:

1. That extra-class events be regarded as the counterpart of curricular instruction.

2. That extra-class events be integrated as closely as possible with class instruction.

3. That extra-class speech activities be taught by a person whose qualifications are in every sense equal to those of persons teaching speech in courses.

4. That the person teaching speech activities be given every right and privilege of other teachers, including the right to have the extra-class teaching counted in the teacher load.

Standards in extra-class instruction in speech cannot be maintained unless teachers and administrators conscientiously observe these recommendations. Even the most highly qualified teacher of speech activities requires time and energy for them. Speech events guided by a teacher of inadequate and narrow preparation or by one whose burden of duties permits only superficial last-minute preparation cannot well be expected to develop or continue an adequate speech program.

The wise principal and the qualified teacher, furthermore, should be mind-

ful of the standards, forms, and regulations in speech activities which are determined and administered by state or national associations. The North Central Association and the Speech Association of America recommend that all groups which sponsor and administer speech contests keep in close touch with each other; that they seek advice and counsel of teachers of speech through their state and national organizations with a view to constant improvement of the speech events they administer. Such associations are concerned with the number and kinds of activities, the length of the season in each event, the encouragement of broad local participation, the educational goals of activities, criteria for the evaluation of events, the choice of qualified critic judges and observers, and the schedules. The responsible agencies do not seek to legislate uniformity in these matters; rather they make it possible and convenient that students and teachers, meeting together on an interscholastic basis, may gain much from mutual observation, evaluation, and comment on common enterprises in speech.

Recognizing that interscholastic speech contests tend to become institutionalized and slow to change to meet modern social conditions, and believing that schools and teachers everywhere would be helped in their efforts to improve contests, the NCA and the SAA join in making the following recommendations:

1. Keeping the *educational* values of speech in today's society in mind, teachers and administrators should evaluate the aims, methods, and procedures of speech activities as they now exist. Although the names and forms of activities vary considerably, the following titles are widely used: public speaking, oratory, radio speaking, debate, dramatics, oratorical declama-

tion, humorous reading, dramatic declamation, prose reading, verse speaking, choral reading. Are all these events as appropriate today as they may have been 20 years ago? Does declamation (the memorized reading), for example, find a place among communicative situations today?

2. In events devoted to the oral reading of prose and poetry for appreciation and pleasure, reading from the page rather than speaking from memory should be encouraged. Some experiences in sight reading should be offered.

3. An event devoted to and emphasizing group discussion would appear to be highly desirable. Such an event should be genuinely motivated toward the acquiring of understanding and technique in committee and conference procedures as well as in discussion as an enterprise in group learning.

4. The teaching of debating should be extended to include in addition to the traditional forms, other procedures, especially those of the legislative type. The Moot Court, the Debators Assembly, and the Student Congress all provide useful and possibly interesting variants from standard forms and all seem well designed to meet the essential purpose of scholastic debate, i.e., the teaching of advocacy. In all school debates greater emphasis should be placed on the speakers' talking to an audience. Possibly desirable or necessary as an exercise or as a rehearsal, tournament debating in an empty room can not be justified as an end in itself. Does not every student of debating have the right to speak before a genuine audience at least as often as he speaks in a tournament rehearsal?

5. Events concerned with public speaking should emphasize extemporaneous speaking, i.e., the original speech which is carefully prepared but whose language is not memorized word-



for-word. An event might be the panel-forum and any event could well require questions from the audience.

6. Activities planned to provide experiences in radio and television should include speaking, acting, writing, and producing, as well as listening. The planning and management of broadcasts are useful not only as a method of mastering of techniques but also as a motivating factor in learning essential principles of speech and as a means of developing intelligent listening.

7. In dramatic contests, good plays should be chosen to meet the needs of students, school, and community. The stock contest piece is too often undertaken merely because it has been a "winner."

8. The types of awards, the method of awarding them, and the manner of presenting them should be carefully examined with a view to their educational and psychological implications. To encourage the proper response, interscholastic meetings might well be called *festivals* or *conferences* rather than contests. The students' work may well be evaluated by the use of general categories such as superior, good, average. Contestants should have the opportunity to learn the bases of the judge's or critic's evaluation of their work. Interscholastic meetings will attain their greatest value when participants and teachers ask *first*, "How can we improve?" not "Who won?"

Extra-class occasions for speaking should be as real and as meaningful as possible. In speaking, discussion, and debate, subjects and problems can often be in tune with the interests of the school and the community. Opportunities are afforded by the school assembly, clubs, the school council, class meetings, and the like; civic groups often welcome students who are prepared to offer them something of interest. Plays, and scenes from plays, can

be chosen not only for their entertainment values but for their insight into basic human problems, character, and behavior.

### III. RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING PUPIL ORGANIZATIONS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE KIWANIS SPONSORED KEY CLUBS

I. *Introduction.* The Contest Committee has been charged with the responsibility of making a study of clubs and organizations in member secondary schools that are chiefly sponsored by organizations not directly connected with secondary education. The Kiwanis sponsored Key Clubs seem to have been the motivation for study by the Contest Committee of the North Central Association.

The Contest Committee has studied this situation thoroughly, and would like to present some basic principles involved, both with respect to the responsibility of the Association, and the responsibility of the individual member schools.

It is commonly understood that one of the basic purposes of the North Central Association is to offer leadership for member schools with respect to acceptable practices, procedures, and goals. It is further understood that the North Central Association should not act in the role of actually solving particular problems for member schools, but should rather provide general principles under which particular problems in individual member schools can be discussed, and possibly solved. It is one of the professed beliefs of the North Central Association that local control of schools in a democracy is highly important, and should not only be retained, but encouraged. Particular decisions should be made by local school authorities within the framework of

acceptable general principles of operation. Actual decisions with respect to particulars and the implementing of acceptable practices and procedures should be the prerogative of the individual member school officers, including the board of education, the administrators, the teachers, and the pupils.

In accordance with this point of view, then, it would seem inappropriate for the North Central Association to formulate a specific Regulation with respect to a particular high school pupil organization or club.

II. *Some Basic Principles for the Organization of High School Pupil Clubs.* A significant purpose of pupil organizations and clubs in secondary schools is that of serving both the needs of individual pupils and the school society as a whole. It is recognized that no pupil organization should exist in secondary schools merely for the sake of the organization itself. Unless a pupil organization serves a very real need of the pupils involved, or the school group as a whole, such organizations can not be educationally defended or justified.

The manner in which secondary school clubs are organized and operated is most significant, especially with respect to providing opportunities for pupils to have experiences in democratic situations.

All school clubs should emerge from needs and interests which emanate from the curricular interests of pupils, general school needs, group needs, or recognized community needs and interests.

When it becomes apparent that there is a genuine need for and interest in the organization of a new club, the organization of a new club should be dealt with in accordance with the procedures adopted by the school for initiating a new club. The proposal to organize a new club should be originated by the pupils themselves in the form of a

petition from the pupils so interested to the student council of the school. The student council should be charged with the responsibility of studying the proposed new organization, keeping in mind the following: (1) No new club should be organized which proposes to provide opportunities which are currently provided by a club now existent in the school, or when such opportunities can be provided by class work, or can be secured by individual pupils through other existing school facilities. (2) No club should be permitted in a member school which discriminates with respect to social status or race. (3) No club should be permitted to organize which seems to have as its basic purpose a means for selecting a group of persons who might segregate themselves into a social clique. (4) Membership in a particular club should be open to all students who possess interests and abilities to function effectively within the framework of the purposes of the club. (5) The pupils should propose the names of the persons whom they wish to sponsor the club. (6) After due consideration by the student council, a recommendation from the council should be presented to the faculty and the principal of the high school, who in turn will act in accordance with the responsibility placed upon the principal and the faculty in a secondary school. If both the faculty and the student council feel that the proposed club can serve a real purpose in the secondary school, then the student council should proceed to charter the club, after it has been in operation for a reasonable length of time. (7) All clubs should report periodically to the student council with respect to their activities and their financial condition. The student council should review annually the work of each club and submit such review to the faculty and the principal. (8) Any club which has



affiliations with outside organizations should channel all responsibility to the outside organization through the student council. (9) No club should be organized within a member secondary school which ignores the accepted channels of communication governing existing organizations within the school.

III. *With Respect to the Kiwanis Sponsored Key Clubs.* The following recommendations deal with the Kiwanis sponsored Key Clubs: (1) There should be a real need for and interest in the organization of a Key Club on the part of both the pupils and the faculty. The proposal for the organization of a Key Club in a member secondary school should originate with the pupils and pass through the regular channel provided by the member school. (2) There should not be pressure brought to bear on the administrator, the faculty, or the pupils by members of the local Kiwanis Club to organize a Key Club within the school. Both Kiwanis International and local Kiwanis Clubs should make known this service to the pupils and the faculty, however. (3) The present Constitution of Key Clubs International is not now in all respects in accordance with the general principles briefly outlined in this report. Officers of Kiwanis International, however, have expressed a sincere willingness to initiate such changes in procedure and the Constitution so that Key Clubs can be organized in member schools within the framework of these general principles.

It is therefore recommended that a committee be appointed which shall be given the responsibility for working with the officers of Kiwanis International to recommend changes in the procedures and the Constitution of Key Clubs International, so that such clubs can be organized in member schools in accordance with the general principles

set forth in this report. The committee should be composed of the following: (a) the Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association, (b) The Chairman and one member of the Contest Committee of the North Central Association. (c) At least three school administrators of secondary schools which have Kiwanis Clubs and who should be selected by the appropriate officials of Kiwanis International. (d) The Director of Key Clubs International and all other officers of the International office who wish to be part of the committee.

When acceptable changes are complete in the Constitution of Key Clubs International, it shall be the responsibility of the Chairman of the Contest Committee to present a report to the Administrative Committee of the North Central Association. The Administrative Committee upon finding this report acceptable should then notify each of the member schools of the Association.

The Chairman of the Contest Committee wishes to add at this point that in all relationships the officers of Kiwanis International have been most cooperative and have at all times expressed a desire to cooperate with the North Central Association in making needed changes which will be acceptable.

#### IV. RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO ATHLETIC CONTESTS

The Contest Committee wishes to re-state its belief that interscholastic athletics have a real place in the experiences of the pupils in the secondary schools. Special attention should be given to the following however:

1. State Committees of the North Central Association in cooperation with state high school athletic associations should continue to study the effects of state high school athletic tourna-

ments not only upon the education program of the schools, but also upon the individual students involved. Such events should contribute to desirable educational outcomes. Some undesirable educational outcomes have been noted in some state high school athletic tournaments. Any such practices should be quickly eliminated by appropriate officials.

2. State Committees of the Association and the state high school athletic association should make a determined effort to limit the number of interscholastic athletic contests so that no one activity of the high school deprives other activities of sufficient time. Activities of all kinds during mid-week should be avoided, if possible. It is realized, however, that with the number of activities in most secondary schools, it is almost impossible to avoid this altogether. The Committee feels that in far too many cases some secondary schools schedule excessive numbers of interscholastic contests each season. This is a matter that should be dealt with by individual State committees and state high school athletic associations. No one activity of a member secondary school should dominate the school, including interscholastic athletics.

#### V. RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO TEACHING AIDS PROVIDED FREE OF CHARGE BY GROUPS OUTSIDE OF THE FIELD OF FORMAL EDUCATION

It is rather commonly recognized among administrators that many worthwhile teaching aids in the form of literature, films and other visual aids are available free of charge from groups other than educational groups. It is also recognized that some of these teaching aids are possibly not desirable, since many times advertising is over-emphasized or an attempt is made to indoctrinate certain beliefs or ideas which are not desirable for the welfare of a democracy. It appears that some efforts have been made by outside organizations or persons to place so-called "subversive" literature in some schools so that it would be available to pupils. So that acceptable free material can be used by schools, and in an effort to discover and prohibit undesirable materials, it is recommended that each member High School handle this situation locally in a way which local officials feel will be most effective. Some system for handling this should be set up by each member secondary school.



## A PROGRAM OF MUSIC EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

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THE DEVELOPMENT in pupils of a sense of beauty is one of the primary purposes of education. The opportunity for growth in aesthetic, emotional, and spiritual responses is missing too often in the present-day educational program. Musical experience must be a vibrant emotional and aesthetic expression and not, as frequently happens, "cold storage memory and digital dexterity." Participation in music as a performer or a listener should provide a series of thrilling moments; good educational procedure is to seize these moments of excited curiosity for maximum accomplishment.

Good music makes sense, and that means a logical structure calling for intellectual understanding and evaluation. The physical basis of rhythm is well established. The sensory response involved in hearing beauty of tone and combinations of tones is most important. Perhaps the heart of response to music is in emotional reaction to a performance. Complete musical experience is a balance and a blend of four types of musical expression. These four types of musical experience—intellectual, physical, sensory, and emotional—are essential if music is to bring richness and satisfaction to our young people.

Music educators have subscribed quite universally to the idea of a balanced program of musical experience in the kindergarten and through the elementary grades. This program involves a number of areas of music instruction and recommends that they be coordinated to unify and enrich the experi-

ence of the pupil. These areas include: listening, singing, rhythmic activities, playing an instrument, and creative activities. Music reading has a place in such a program, with most authorities suggesting that kindergarten and the first three grades be concerned with visual experience of rote songs, and developing the power to read in the upper elementary grades. With music such a common expression for all people, it would seem shortsighted to permit our young people to remain musically illiterate.

The majority of our school systems have a required course in music from kindergarten through the eighth grade. This means that every pupil has musical instruction to some degree, and many schools provide additional activity for the more talented by means of special choirs, orchestras, and instrumental classes.

At present, there are some serious questions about the musical opportunities for young people in grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve. Few schools require music in these grades, and place all musical activities upon the elective, and sometimes, the selective basis. A limited number of pupils—usually those who can sing or play well—are members of the vocal and instrumental classes. A much larger group, many of whom would like to be reasonably informed about, and fairly well acquainted with, the musical repertory that they will hear at concerts, over the radio and television, etc., find themselves completely excluded from any musical opportunity. Such a situation does not call for abandonment of the band, orchestra, and choir. These groups are valuable and need to be carried on, but with, perhaps, a slight

<sup>1</sup> EDITOR'S NOTE: This article and the one by Mr. Zimmerman which immediately follows are published here because of their philosophical implications. They are not part of the report of the Contest Committee.

change in purpose and action.

Digital dexterity or technical skill is really a valuable possession, but that alone does not make the musician, and far too many boys and girls graduate from our high schools with a rather facile technic upon some instrument but without any real understanding of musical literature, certainly one of the basic objectives of any music course.

Music contests have been blamed for this over-emphasis on technical performance, which perhaps is not quite a fair criticism. The writer has followed the contest movement closely since its real beginning in 1926. At that time, very few vocal or instrumental organizations possessed either technic or tone quality. A national band contest in Fostoria, Ohio, brought together some twenty bands from all parts of the United States. Judges made written comments as they do now and were forced to rank each band as first, second, third, and so on. The committee in charge asked for numerical grading and deducted one-half point for each instrument missing from a "standard instrumentation list." Within five years the growth in standard instrumentation was nationwide. Then it was discovered that some misguided directors were spending most of the school year rehearsing the two or three numbers that were to be played in the contest. That problem was solved to a great extent by adding a sight-reading test for each entry and lowering the grade received in performance if the sight reading was poorly done. To build up sight-reading power, it is necessary to read a great deal of literature through the year and this prevents concentration on two or three musical numbers for a whole year.

A little later, the idea of "Pace-makers in Music" came to the fore and the ranking system that caused so much bitterness was replaced by the rating system through which any num-

ber of performing groups might be placed in first rating if they deserved that placement.

It is true that contests can be worthless or worse; but they may also serve a good purpose. There are times when a school group should not enter a contest and there are times when a contest may be of great value. It is a striking scene when fifteen choral clubs are in competition, with every club hearing the performance of all the others and showing by applause that they recognize variations in quality of performance. And interestingly enough, an applause meter would coincide rather accurately with the opinion of the judges.

The one striking objection to contests would be in the apparent weight of importance given to performing groups over such classes as "Listening" or "Theory." It is true that many music teachers and many principals place too much importance on performing organizations at the expense of a larger group in the schools who find that their musical education stops completely as they enter high school.

Perhaps the next great step forward in music education in America will be the conviction that the aesthetic, emotional, and spiritual life of the high school pupil deserves active attention. At present there are required courses in English and American literature, and why should we not require at least a semester each of music literature and art literature in our high schools? The master composers and some of their representative works should be a part of every citizen's life. It is possible that our secondary schools have concerned themselves too much with the material or tangible things of this life and with the techniques of living together in one world, but have overlooked the obligation to so equip each individual that his life will be interesting and rewarding



whether he is alone or with a group.

The sense of beauty concerning which Santayana<sup>2</sup> writes so movingly can truly become one of the riches which the world cannot take away. The "well furnished mind" is a priceless possession, becoming more valuable with every year. It is true that we must equip young people to support themselves and to have needed knowledge of the world in which they live, but it is at least as important to teach them how to see, hear, and enjoy the beautiful experiences that are available to them in this good world.

<sup>2</sup> George Santayana, *The Sense of Beauty*, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1896.

Ultimately the secondary school will realize the need of another faculty member in addition to the vocal and instrumental teachers. This new music teacher will be well equipped in knowledge of musical literature, musical history, and theory as well as being a person whose obvious delight in music is contagious. When such provision for the welfare of students is made, then we can say truthfully that we are providing adequate music education for *all* of America's young people. It is not a question of doing less for those now in our music classes, but answering the need of the others who will become the great consuming public in a truly musical America.

## THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF MUSIC IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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WITH THE current discussion of "artificial goals" prevailing in school music circles everywhere, it would behoove both principal and music teacher to evaluate the place and function of music in the secondary school—both as it exists in most of our American Schools and as to the place an expanding music program should occupy in the curriculum.

As a focal point for beginning this evaluation it is necessary to consider the point of view upon which the program should be built. The following is submitted as a means of creating a point of view or common ground from which our discussion can emanate:<sup>1</sup>

Music offerings on the secondary level are broad and varied enough to attract as large a group of students as is feasible in the all-inclusive program of the modern school.

Music is integrated with other subjects whenever possible.

If at all possible, some musical experience is provided for every student.

Occasional assembly sings provide an outlet for the entire student body. In addition, general music classes requiring no prerequisites are offered to spread the effectiveness of music for all.

The secondary curriculum provides for musical organizations which encourage participation by talented young people.

Public appearances of music groups in the community are an important part of the training of young musicians.

Public appearances of music groups must not result in exploitation of the students.

Participants in the music organizations realize the importance of their future contribution to the general culture of the community (church and civic choirs, orchestras, bands, and ensembles of all types).

Music, the universal language, is an effective means for achieving the high ideals and realization of a true interchange of all cultures.

Folk music of all cultures makes pupils proud of their heritage and gives them an understanding of the oneness of the human race.

It is obvious at the outset, therefore, that the complete music program involves activities for every student as well as for the musically talented. What are the specific courses which the modern school should offer to achieve the objectives suggested by the above "point of view"? Briefly, something like the following list and descriptions should suffice:

1. *General Music Class.* The effectiveness of music in the lives of all people, regardless of innate musical talents, has long been recognized by the educator. Hence a course should be included which meets the needs of the pupil at whatever musical level he may be and leads him to a realization that "music is for everybody." This course is not to be confused with the old "music appreciation" offering.

2. *Choral Organizations.* The basic value of choral organizations may be said to be: (1) the enrichment of the life of the individual through vocal musical experience and (2) development of vocal skills and techniques which will enable the individual to use, to the utmost of his ability, the gift he may have in music, whether it be in performance or in the appreciation of the performance of others. Choral groups in the modern secondary school should take the form of mixed chorus, girls' glee clubs, and boys' glee clubs. It should be pointed out that large groups of students can participate effectively in choral organizations. The size of the groups need be limited only by the skill and effectiveness of the teacher,

<sup>1</sup> A summation by a group of some sixty music teachers in the San Diego City Schools. It appears in that system's "Secondary Curriculum Guide," p. 161. (Copyright 1951.)



and the physical setup, materials, and equipment.

3. *Orchestra.* Orchestra provides vital musical experience for the student and creates in him an abiding interest in orchestral music both as a listener and as a performer.

4. *Band.* School bands afford a splendid opportunity to teach music and school citizenship. This encompasses far more than playing a few tunes at a basketball game and working diligently for months on three pieces to be played at a contest.

5. *Music Theory.* The study of music theory is of value to those students for whom music has a general and cultural interest, as well as those for whom music has a professional interest. High school music theory should fit the needs of both groups.

6. *Music History and Appreciation.* History of music, as a science, and music appreciation, as an art, are complements of each other and, therefore, in a combined course each illuminates the other.

There has been much discussion and debate about the place of the contest and competition-festival in the secondary school music picture. As one who has adjudicated at contests in many parts of the country over a period of many years, the writer knows that some of the criticisms leveled at the music contest are valid. He would like to indicate also that a good adjudicator is almost always able to detect the special pressure that has been applied to make the student "win-conscious" regardless of all other considerations.

Is the contest a true motivation, or is it an artificial one which certain teachers need? From years of experience as a high school music teacher as well as an adjudicator of school music contests, the writer is convinced that the teachers with top flight perform-

ances at contests would remain the leaders of top flight groups if contests were eliminated. Their groups are superior because of superior teaching and the inspiration which a great teacher gives! To credit the contest with these results is wrong. Also to blame the contest for lack of them is wrong.

It seems to this writer that there is also another artificial goal which is often overlooked—and probably a more insidious one than the contest—the exploitation of the students in the matter of public appearances and pressures in their own community. In many schools this evil far exceeds the contest evil in respect to hindering a real instructional program. The necessity of getting ready for the continuous round of public appearances makes a real developmental music program in the performing organizations an impossibility.

A good music organization is like an athletic team. It is necessary for the group to get "under fire" to be successful. However, the number of public performances can soon become staggering. Often the teacher, with mistaken notions of virtuosity, uses these public appearances for his own aggrandizement, and the welfare and growth of students is forgotten. Sometimes the teacher needs the protection of a good principal to prevent the public from making excessive demands. A certain high school choral group recently made twenty-eight public appearances in one month! Imagine! The writer observed a small ensemble last April which was performing the same (and only) three numbers which it had performed the previous October. The group had learned the three numbers at the outset of the school year and was so busy performing them all year long that no new music had been learned. Yet this ensemble was meeting

as a regular high school class and receiving regular credit for the activity. During a visit in the classroom, the group was using the class period for study and the teacher explained that since the group performed at any time of day or night at any place it was necessary to allow the students to use the assigned time as a preparation for other classes. Can the contest at its worst offer a condition as bad as this?

It seems, therefore, that the matter of extended day activities—in every field in the secondary school—needs careful scrutiny in its effect upon both the instructional program and the personality development of our young people.

What is the solution to the “artificial goal” dilemma? A good principal and a good music teacher! There is no substitution for either! The good principal will see that a real instructional program is set up and carried out, and will realize the necessity for adequate teacher time to do it. He will place the welfare of students first in all of the activities of his school. He will see that

the public is correctly informed about the complete school program. If he and his music teacher think the department needs to be motivated by a contest he will see that the activity is carried on properly.

The good teacher will always remember that the school is organized to serve the students. He will build all of the activity program around the welfare of the young people. He will indoctrinate the youth with humility so that in the event the group enters a contest, both students and townspeople will survive the experience with the true knowledge that the activity represents but a small segment of the broad music education program.

If the music teachers and principals work together to provide such desirable music experiences for the students in their schools, they will seldom feel the need to stop and worry about what is or is not an artificial goal. Real live goals will be so much in evidence that the old “artificial” bogey will die a natural and permanent death.



## TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE FISCAL YEAR

July 1, 1950-June 30, 1951

R. NELSON SNIDER, *Treasurer*

THE treasurer submits the following audit of his accounts for the fiscal year, July 1, 1950 to June 30, 1951, as reported by Koeneman, Borger, Krouse & Dinius, Certified Public Accountants of Fort Wayne, Indiana. This firm has been retained by the North Central Association to maintain a perpetual audit of the books and records maintained at the treasurer's office. The following audit is dated August 10, 1951.

Dear Sir:

We [Koeneman, Borger, Krouse & Dinius] have examined the books and records maintained at your office as Treasurer of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the year ended June 30, 1951, and submit herewith our report in the following exhibits, schedules and comments pertaining thereto:

Exhibit "A" —Balance Sheet, June 30, 1951;

Exhibit "B" —Statement of Cash Receipts and Disbursements for the years ended June 30, 1951 and June 30, 1950;

Schedule "B-1"—Statement of Income and Expenses—General Fund—for the years ended June 30, 1951 and June 30, 1950;

Schedule "B-2"—Statement of Expenses for the years ended June 30, 1951 and June 30, 1950.

### COMMENTS ON BALANCE SHEET

*Cash on deposit—\$37,374.62*

The cash funds of the Association were on deposit at June 30, 1951, in the following banks:

The Peoples Trust & Savings Co., Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	\$17,740.58
Lincoln National Bank and Trust Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	9,575.55
Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Co., Chicago, Illinois.....	5,000.00
South Holland Trust & Savings Bank, South Holland, Illinois.....	5,058.49
	\$37,374.62

The bank balances at June 30, 1951 were verified directly with the depositories and the amounts reported to us were reconciled with the amounts shown on the books.

Copies of the official receipts for cash received by the Treasurer were traced to the cash receipts records and to the records of deposits in the banks. The disbursement vouchers were examined and were found to be properly authorized. The cancelled checks returned by the banks were examined and were traced to the cash disbursement records.

The cash on deposit includes \$14,508.34, belonging to the Liberal Arts Education Study account, and \$5,300.06 belonging to the account of the subcommittee on Institutions for Teachers' Education.

*Revolving Funds with Secretaries of Commissions—\$1,354.17*

The balances in the Revolving Funds held by the Secretaries of Commissions and the "QUARTERLY" office were verified by examining their reports as of June 30, 1951 as made to the Treasurer of the Association.

Disbursements from the Revolving Funds are reported periodically by the Secretaries in charge of the funds. The Secretaries are reimbursed by the Treasurer in accordance with the reports submitted.

The following amounts were reported as of June 30, 1951:

Dr. Edgar G. Johnston, Secretary, Commission on Secondary Schools  
Trust Fund, Secondary Commission  
University of Michigan

Balance in account..... \$ 150.00

Mr. Norman Burns, Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities

Cash on hand..... \$ 11.54

Cash on deposit, University National Bank, Chicago..... 555.42 566.96

Dr. G. W. Rosenlof, Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Balance in account..... 176.60

Dr. Harlan C. Koch, Managing Editor, North Central Association QUARTERLY

Balance in account..... 460.61

\$1,354.17

#### *Due from member—\$7.26*

The foregoing amount represents a duplicate reimbursement of expenses to Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma. A request for refund has been made.

#### *Liberal Arts Education Study—\$14,508.34*

Exhibit "B" presents the total receipts and disbursements of the Liberal Arts Education Study Fund. It will be noted that the income exceeded the expenditures for the year ended June 30, 1951 by \$2,182.94, and this amount added to the balance at July 1, 1950 makes the Fund balance at June 30, 1951, \$14,508.34.

#### *Institutions for Teachers' Education—\$5,300.06*

The cash received for Institutions for Teachers' Education is carried as a fund balance and accordingly is not included in the income of the General Fund. During the year ended June 30, 1951, the cash collections exceeded the expenditures by \$1,700.06 making the fund balance \$5,300.06, as at June 30, 1951.

#### *General Fund—\$17,129.08*

The General Fund balance was increased \$1,552.93 for the year ended June 30, 1951, this amount being the excess of the income over the expenses during the year. The balance in the General Fund at June 30, 1951, as shown in Exhibit "B," is \$17,129.08.

#### COMMENTS ON ACTIVITIES

The gross income of the Association for the year ended June 30, 1951 was \$78,575.71. Of this amount, \$55,320.02 represents receipts for membership fees. The expenses for the year amounted to \$77,022.78. Accordingly, the income exceeded the expenses for the year ended June 30, 1951 by \$1,552.93, as compared with an excess of income over expense for the previous year of \$5,506.12.

A condensed summary of the income and expense in comparative form for the years ending June 30, 1951 and June 30, 1950 is as follows:

<i>Income</i>	<i>Year Ended</i>		<i>Increase (Decrease)</i>
	<i>6-30-51</i>	<i>6-30-50</i>	
Membership fees.....	\$55,320.02	\$54,510.00	\$ 810.02
Membership fees paid in advance.....	10.00	—	10.00
Application fees.....	700.00	570.00	130.00
Inspection and survey fees.....	16,382.86	14,845.32	1,537.54
Sale of quarterlies.....	1,157.14	1,547.80	( 390.66)
Sale of manuals and schedules.....	270.47	383.68	( 113.21)
Sale of Form "A-3".....	1,621.44	3,437.23	(1,815.79)
Registration fees—annual meeting.....	1,385.00	1,559.00	( 174.00)
Royalties, reprints and miscellaneous.....	1,504.49	2,311.82	( 807.33)
Closed bank liquidation.....	224.29	—	224.29
Total Income.....	\$78,575.71	\$79,164.85	\$ ( 589.14)
Expenses.....	77,022.78	73,658.73	3,364.05
Excess of Income over Expenses.....	\$ 1,552.93	\$ 5,506.12	\$ (3,953.19)



The details of the General Fund income and expenses for the years ended June 30, 1951 and June 30, 1950 are shown in Schedule "B-1." Further details of the expenses are presented in Schedule "B-2."

The Treasurer of the Association is bonded in the amount of \$10,000.00, and his Secretary is bonded in the amount of \$5,000.00. The bonds issued by The Ohio Casualty Insurance Company were examined by us.

## GENERAL

Our examination was confined to an audit of the cash receipts and disbursements of the Association as recorded by the Treasurer. In addition to the cash balances and the receivable, the Association is said to own certain unrecorded other assets consisting principally of office equipment at various offices. No attempt was made to determine the amount or value of this equipment.

In our opinion, subject to the representations of the secretaries of the revolving funds as to balances controlled by them, the accompanying balance sheet and statement of income and expenses present fairly the financial position of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, as at June 30, 1951, and the results of its financial operations for the year then ended, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a basis consistent with that of the preceding year.

Respectfully submitted,

KOENEMAN, BORGER, KROUSE & DINIUS  
Certified Public Accountants

*Exhibit "A"*

## NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

BALANCE SHEET, JUNE 30, 1951

## ASSETS

<i>Cash:</i>	
On deposit.....	\$37,374.62
Revolving Funds with Secretaries of Commissions.....	1,354.17
Total Working Funds.....	\$38,728.79
<i>Due from Member</i> .....	7.26
Total Assets.....	<u>\$38,736.05</u>

## FUND BALANCES AND LIABILITIES

Withheld taxes payable.....	\$ 444.40
Liberal Arts Education Study.....	14,508.34
Institutions for Teachers' Education.....	5,300.06
Revolving Funds—Secretaries of Commissions.....	1,354.17

*General Fund:*

Balance July 1, 1950.....	\$15,576.15	
Add excess of income over expenses for the year ended June 30, 1951 (Schedule "B-1").....	1,552.93	17,129.08
Total Fund Balances and Liabilities.....		<u>\$38,736.05</u>

*Exhibit "B"*

## NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

## STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1951 AND JUNE 30, 1950

	<i>Balance July 1, 1949</i>	<i>Receipts 1949-50</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Disburse- ments 1949-50</i>	<i>Balance June 30, 1950</i>
<i>1949-50:</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study	\$ 7,834.19	\$ 17,554.48	\$ 25,388.67	\$ 13,063.27	\$ 12,325.40
Institutions for Teachers' Ed- ucation	2,350.00	5,000.00	7,350.00	3,750.00	3,600.00
General Fund.....	10,070.03	79,164.85	89,234.88	73,658.73	15,576.15
Total.....	<u>\$20,254.22</u>	<u>\$101,719.33</u>	<u>\$121,973.55</u>	<u>\$90,472.00</u>	<u>\$31,501.55</u>
<i>1950-51:</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study	\$ 12,325.40	\$ 17,256.17	\$ 29,581.57	\$ 15,073.23	\$ 14,508.34
Institutions for Teachers' Ed- ucation.....	3,600.00	7,227.50	10,827.50	5,527.44	5,300.06
General Fund.....	15,576.15	78,575.71	94,151.86	77,022.78	17,129.08
Temporary loan*.....	—	1,100.00	1,100.00	1,100.00	—
Total.....	<u>\$31,501.55</u>	<u>\$104,159.38</u>	<u>\$135,660.93</u>	<u>\$98,723.45</u>	<u>\$36,937.48</u>

\* A temporary loan to the Association by the South Side High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana, was made to provide funds for R. Nelson Snider, Treasurer, until the Association funds were transferred from Dr. William E. McVey, retiring Treasurer.

*Schedule "B-1"*

## NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

## STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES—GENERAL FUND

FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1951 AND JUNE 30, 1950

	<i>Year Ended 6-30-51</i>	<i>Year Ended 6-30-50</i>	<i>Increase (Decrease)</i>
<i>Income:</i>			
<i>Membership Dues:</i>			
Universities and colleges.....	\$22,425.00	\$21,675.00	750.00
Junior colleges.....	2,025.00	2,025.00	—
Secondary schools.....	30,870.02	30,810.00	60.02
	<u>\$55,320.02</u>	<u>\$54,510.00</u>	<u>\$ 810.02</u>
Membership dues paid in advance.....	10.00	—	10.00
Application fees.....	700.00	570.00	130.00
Inspection and survey fees.....	16,382.86	14,845.32	1,537.54
Registration fees—annual meeting.....	1,385.00	1,559.00	( 174.00)
Total Fees.....	<u>\$73,797.88</u>	<u>\$71,484.32</u>	<u>\$ 2,313.56</u>
<i>Other Income:</i>			
Sale of QUARTERLIES.....	1,157.14	1,547.80	( 390.66)
Sale of manuals and schedules.....	270.47	383.68	( 113.21)
Sale of Form "A-3".....	1,621.44	3,437.23	(1,815.79)
<i>Fletcher-American National Bank:</i>			
Balance from liquidation.....	224.29	—	224.29



Royalties, reprints, faculty record blanks and miscellaneous income.....	1,504.49	2,311.82	( 807.33)
Total Other Income.....	\$ 4,777.83	\$ 7,680.53	\$(2,902.70)
Total Income.....	\$78,575.71	\$79,164.85	\$( 589.14)

*Expense:*

Commission on research and service.....	\$ 2,967.45	\$ 3,206.26	\$( 238.81)
Commission on secondary schools.....	16,980.05	14,333.74	2,646.31
Commission on colleges and universities.....	12,430.63	11,450.15	980.48
Executive committee.....	2,201.94	3,836.00	(1,634.06)
Quarterly office.....	11,013.02	9,398.62	1,614.40
Secretary's office.....	3,262.54	3,194.79	67.75
Treasurer's office.....	2,786.70	2,812.25	( 25.55)
General association.....	5,666.16	5,327.24	338.92
Annual meeting.....	2,768.91	1,941.44	827.47
Junior College Committee.....	—	1,044.10	(1,044.10)
High school—College Relationship Committee.....	448.73	922.62	(473.89)
Inspection and survey expenses.....	16,382.86	14,763.31	1,619.55
Sale of Form "A-3" expenses.....	—	1,423.26	(1,423.26)
Royalties paid.....	106.54	—	106.54
Bank service charges.....	7.25	4.95	2.30
Total Expenses.....	\$77,022.78	\$73,658.73	\$ 3,364.05

Net Income.....	\$ 1,552.93	\$ 5,506.12	\$(3,953.19)
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*Schedule "B-2"*

## NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

## STATEMENT OF EXPENSES

FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1951 AND JUNE 30, 1950

	Year Ended 6-30-51	Year Ended 6-30-50	Increase (Decrease)
<i>Commission on Research and Service:</i>			
Steering committee.....	\$ 205.69	\$ 327.74	\$( 122.05)
Committee on experimental units.....	639.56	804.24	( 164.68)
Committee on Teacher Education:			
Directing Committee.....	152.87	—	152.87
Teacher personnel.....	—	41.15	( 41.15)
Liberal Arts Education.....	472.54	626.59	( 154.05)
In Service Education.....	506.70	719.43	( 212.73)
Institutions for Teacher Education.....	499.86	399.19	100.67
Committee on Teacher Education in Complex Institutions.....	314.38	—	314.38
Council on Cooperation.....	100.00	—	100.00
Library Teachers' Education.....	—	236.30	( 236.30)
Committee on Exploration and New Studies.....	—	3.96	( 3.96)
Committee on Guidance.....	—	47.66	( 47.66)
Committee on Public Relations.....	75.85	—	75.85
Total Commission on Research and Service.....	\$ 2,967.45	\$ 3,206.26	\$( 238.81)

	<i>Year Ended 6-30-51</i>	<i>Year Ended 6-30-50</i>	<i>Increase (Decrease)</i>
<i>Commission on Secondary Schools:</i>			
Secretary's Office:			
Clerical assistance.....	\$ 2,849.65	\$ 2,160.00	\$ 689.65
Postage and incidentals.....	106.04	148.13	( 42.09)
State Chairman Fall Meeting.....	2,020.31	1,800.00	220.31
Secretarial assistance at Chicago.....	100.00	100.00	—
Office of Chairman.....	400.00	300.00	100.00
State Committee.....	8,411.00	7,606.50	804.50
Administrative Committee.....	954.60	649.02	305.58
Committee of the Commission:			
Cooperative Committee on Research.....	354.42	235.57	118.85
Contest Committee.....	748.41	410.64	337.77
Committee on Dependent Schools.....	225.00	225.00	—
Report Form Committee.....	810.62	698.88	111.74
Total Commission on Secondary Schools.....	<u>\$16,980.05</u>	<u>\$14,333.74</u>	<u>\$ 2,646.31</u>
<i>Commission on Colleges and Universities:</i>			
Office of Secretary:			
Salaries.....	\$ 7,460.04	\$ 7,000.00	\$ 460.04
Postage and incidentals.....	931.46	1,111.58	( 180.21)
Temporary assistance.....	699.50	500.00	199.50
Board of Review.....	1,380.17	1,171.57	208.60
Special studies and revision of schedules.....	1,959.46	1,667.00	292.46
Total Commission on Colleges and Universities..	<u>\$12,430.63</u>	<u>\$11,450.15</u>	<u>\$ 980.48</u>
<i>Executive Committee Meetings.....</i>	<u>\$ 2,201.94</u>	<u>\$ 3,836.00</u>	<u>\$(1,634.06)</u>
<i>QUARTERLY Office:</i>			
Clerical assistance.....	\$ 2,400.00	\$ 2,299.92	\$ 100.08
Postage and incidentals.....	126.82	98.70	28.12
QUARTERLY issues.....	8,486.20	7,000.00	1,486.20
Total QUARTERLY Office.....	<u>\$11,013.02</u>	<u>\$ 9,398.62</u>	<u>\$ 1,614.40</u>
<i>Secretary's Office:</i>			
Clerical assistance.....	\$ 3,000.00	\$ 3,000.00	\$ —
Postage and incidentals.....	262.54	194.79	67.75
Total Secretary's Office.....	<u>\$ 3,262.54</u>	<u>\$ 3,194.79</u>	<u>\$ 67.75</u>
<i>Treasurer's Office:</i>			
Clerical assistance.....	\$ 2,400.00	\$ 2,400.00	\$ —
Miscellaneous.....	61.85	100.00	( 38.15)
Postage.....	45.00	42.25	2.75
Bond.....	54.85	45.00	9.85
Audit.....	175.00	175.00	—
Notary Fees.....	50.00	50.00	—
Total Treasurer's Office.....	<u>\$ 2,786.70</u>	<u>\$ 2,812.25</u>	<u>\$( 25.55)</u>

*General Association:*

Traveling expense.....	\$ 1,276.93	\$ 716.22	\$ 560.71
Printing.....	4,283.96	4,400.06	( 116.10)
Miscellaneous.....	105.27	210.96	( 105.69)

Total General Association.....	\$ 5,666.16	\$ 5,327.24	\$ 338.92
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Annual Meeting.....	\$ 2,768.91	\$ 1,941.44	\$ 827.47
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Junior College Committee.....	\$ —	\$ 1,044.10	\$(1,044.10)
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High School-College Relationship.....	\$ 448.73	\$ 922.62	\$( 473.89)
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*Inspection and Survey Expense:*

Traveling expenses, editing, typing reports, etc.....	\$16,382.86	\$14,763.31	\$ 1,619.55
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Sale of Form "A-3" Expenses.....	\$ —	\$ 1,423.26	\$(1,423.26)
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*Other:*

Royalties paid.....	\$ 106.54	\$	\$ 106.54
Bank service charges.....	7.25	4.95	2.30

Total Other.....	\$ 113.79	\$ 4.95	\$ 108.84
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Total Expenses.....	\$77,022.78	\$73,658.73	\$ 3,364.05
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## PUBLICATIONS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION<sup>1</sup>

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service
  - A. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in high school social studies classes. Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.
    1. *Atomic Energy*, by WILL R. BURNETT
    2. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by E. E. LORY and C. L. RHYNE
    3. *Housing in the United States*, by A. W. TROELSTRUP
    4. *Latin America and Its Future*, by RYLAND W. CRARY
    5. *Maps and Facts for World Understanding*
    6. *Why Taxes?* by EDWARD A. KRUG and ROBERT S. HARNACK
    7. *The Federal Government and You*
    8. *Youth and Jobs*, by DOUGLAS S. WARD
    9. *The Family and You*, by HENRY A. BOWMAN
  - B. Unit Studies for Better Learning—McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.
    1. *Sprouting Your Wings*, by Bruce H. Guild
  - C. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects.
    1. A Study of Teacher Certification
    2. Developing the Health Education Program.
    3. Attacking Reading Problems in Secondary Schools.
    4. Developing Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life. ((25¢)
    5. Better Teaching Through Audio-Visual Materials. (10¢)
    6. Report of the Self-Study Survey of Guidance Practices in North Central Association High Schools for the School Year 1947-48 and Check List of Elements in a Minimum and an Extended Program of Guidance and Counseling. (10¢)
    7. Cooperation between Secondary Schools and Colleges—a report prepared for the Committee on High School-College Relations of the North Central Association by Manning M. Patillo, Jr., and Lorence Stout, University of Chicago. (15¢ for single copies; \$1.50 for more mailed to one address 12¢ a copy).
    8. Better Colleges, Better Teachers—Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York 11 New York.
  - D. Syllabus—*Functional Health Teaching*, by LYNDA M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools
  - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
  - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
  - A. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*, July, 1941. \$2.00 (unbound)
  - B. *Home Economics in Liberal Arts Colleges*, by CLARA M. BROWN. Published 1943, under joint sponsorship with the American Home Economics Association. \$1.00
  - C. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers, free of charge
    1. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Higher Institutions, Operation of the Accrediting Procedure," July 1, 1941

<sup>1</sup> Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Charles W. Boardman, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

2. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
3. "Principles of Freedom in Teaching and Research." An extract from *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. II. *The Faculty*
4. "Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics," June, 1933
5. "Conditions Surrounding the Offering of the Master's Degree," by E. B. STOFFER October, 1937
6. "Professional Education in Physical Education," by D. OBERTEUFFER, April, 1940
7. "Nursing Education in Higher Institutions of the North Central Association," by LUCILE PETRY, April, 1941
8. "Survey of Music Education in the North Central Association," by ALBERT RIEMENSCHNEIDER, October, 1941
9. "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-five North Central Colleges," by MELVIN W. HYDE and EMIL LEFFLER, January, 1942
10. "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," by ANTON J. CARLSON, October, 1943
11. "Report of the Committee on Postwar Education," April, 1946
12. "Faculty Status in Member Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1945-46," by JOHN H. RUSSEL and NORMAN BURNS, April, 1948

V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies

- A. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*. Published in 1944, in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
- B. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.
  1. *How to Evaluate a Secondary School* (1940 Edition), paper, \$1.10
  2. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), paper \$2.50; set of separate sections \$2.50 each
  3. *Educational Temperatures* (1940 Edition), \$1.25

VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage.

VII. "Know Your North Central Association."



